CHILDREN

VOLUME 18 • NUMBER 1 • JANUARY–FEBRUARY 1971

CHILDREN

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL FOR THE PROFESSIONS SERVING CHILDREN

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This girl is one of the children whose ideas were solicited in preparation for the 1970 White House Conference on Children, held in Washington, D.C., in mid-December. Highlights from the reports presented to the Conference appear in the lead article in this issue.

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NOEL EPSTEIN

The White House Conference on Children, the seventh of this century, technically ended on December 18 in Washington, D.C., and the 4,000 delegates from across the country are now back home again. But, as demonstrated in the past, a White House Conference is not really over with the conclusion of the final meeting, the emptying of the hotels, and the boarding of the planes, trains, and buses. In fact, the delegates' departure for home is in a sense only the beginning.

Ultimately, what counts is what happens between now and the next Conference, in 1980, and that depends in good measure on what the 4,000 delegates do back in their communities and how the rest of the Nation responds to their efforts.

The delegates' report to the President is scheduled to be issued in the near future. What it proposes was not available at the time this article went to press. But the Conference did issue preliminary reports, developed by 24 pre-Conference forums of various kinds of experts and laymen from all facets of society, and these reports make clear that a great deal must be done if America is to meet the needs of its children in the seventies.

Indeed, the forum reports tend to condemn us as individuals and as a society for vast neglect of our children's needs. And one—prepared by a group led by Urie Bronfenbrenner, chairman, Department of Psychology and Human Development, Cornell University—warns that, unless we change, "We face the

PRIORITIES FOR CHANGE

some preliminary proposals from the White House Conference on Children

prospect of a society which resents its own children and fears its youth. Surely this is the road to national destruction."

The reports recommend sharp changes in the attitudes and actions of parents, the schools, the communications media, business, the health system, and all levels of government. While some of the proposals would cost money—and in these cases the reports emphasize that we cannot continue to cut corners with the lives of our children—many others would not. Most, however, would cost us some of our current ways of thinking.

The schools

One proposal, for example, calls for a network of experimental elementary schools free of all current regulations, where many hindrances to education could be overcome and the best known education methods applied. Recommended by a group headed by Dwight Allen, dean of the University of Massachusetts School of Education, the plan reflects the deep dissatisfaction with our school system that runs throughout the reports.

"Participation in these experimental approaches would be at the option of parents and students—no one would be required to attend the experimental schools and no program would be initiated without local support," the report states. "Although no additional money would be required, some legislation might be necessary to free the schools from present requirements." The experimental schools, in other words, would come from the existing system, and would include perhaps 10 percent of the children now in school.

These experimental schools would be designed to dispel many existing myths about education. These myths, according to the Allen group, include the belief that "children have to go to school to learn," that "schools prepare children for the future," that "schools teach the truth," that "competition in class is good and that grading is good," that "schools can only be changed slowly," that "you shouldn't experiment with children in school," and that "you can't change education without money."

The report of this forum finds that "the risks of maintaining the status quo are now as great, or greater, than the risks of exploring alternatives." It maintains that "our educational mythology severely inhibits ability to respond to the new demands (of our age)."

Similar sentiments can be found in other forum reports. One, concerned primarily with the child and the law, also proposes a system of model elementary schools, a proposal that conceivably could be incorporated into the Allen group's plan. This forum would like to see schools established that are based on democratic principles. Headed by Roy Lee Steinheimer, dean of the School of Law, Washington and Lee University, the group recommends schools where

As part of preparations for the White House Conference on Children, groups of children, like this one, were invited to present their ideas in "moppet briefings" held with the staff.

students are involved "totally in decisionmaking" and thereby experience the democratic process.

"For many, the promise of the American system in terms of justice is largely unfulfilled," the report states, "and faith in the ability of that system to guarantee individual freedom and justice has severely eroded. Now, as probably never before in our history, there is a clear need to understand and appreciate that American democracy is workable and can be fruitful."

The school approach this forum proposes would strive to "make clear that 'democratic process' seeks or encourages a healthy balance between compliance and individual freedom. The democratic process does not eliminate rules or authority, but derives them by nonauthoritarian means; it does not bring an end to the enforcement of order but gives that enforcement a clear rationale."

In another report on the future of learning, a forum led by John I. Goodlad, dean of the Graduate School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, declares:

"The top agenda item in seeking to enhance learning in the seventies is unshackling the schools. The process must begin by decentralizing authority and responsibility for instructional decisionmaking to individual schools."

This forum recommends a "massive infusion" of government funds for development of experimental schools that would "explore alternatives, test innovations, and create learning options outside the present educational systems." At the root of the problem it finds an implicit denial of diversity. "The schools have been great sorting machines, labeling and certifying those who presumably will be winners and losers as adults. The winners are disproportionately white and affluent. The losers, too often, are poor, and brown or black or red."

Still another forum recommends a Presidential commission to study the possibility of free public education starting at age 3 or 4. This group, led by P. Kenneth Komoski, director of Educational Products Information Exchange, Inc., states that more flexible institutions should be created for younger children and that considerable attention should be given to the training of both teachers and parents in educating the very young. (The education of parents is another significant theme running through the reports.)

And a forum on "The Right to Read," noting that one out of every four American children suffers from severe reading difficulty, calls for improved research to identify the components of literacy. Seeking a goal of literacy for every child in the Nation, this forum—headed by Edward Summers, professor in the School of Education, University of British Columbia—recommends that the National Reading Council propose legislation that would initiate a coordinated literacy effort.

There can be no doubt that substantial change in our educational system will be urged in the final report of the White House Conference. The same can be said for many other areas of our life.

Reordering priorities

The forum chaired by Dr. Bronfenbrenner, for example, calls for a basic reordering of the priorities of our Nation. "Our society expects its citizens first of all to meet the demands of their jobs and then to fulfill civic and social obligations. Responsibilities to children are to be met, of course, but this is something one is expected to do in his spare time. But when, where, and how?"

The report adds: "The frustrations are greatest for the family of poverty where the capacity for human response is crippled by hunger, cold, filth, sickness, and despair. No parent who spends his days in search of menial work, and his nights in keeping

rats away from the crib, can be expected to find the time—let alone the heart—to engage in constructive activities with his children or serve as a stable source of love and discipline.

"For families who can get along, the rats are gone, but the rat race remains. The demands of a job, or often two jobs, which often claim mealtimes, evenings, and weekends as well as days; the trips and moves one must make to get ahead or simply hold one's own; the ever increasing time spent in commuting, the parties, evenings out, and the social and community obligations . . . produce a situation in which a child often spends more time with a passive babysitter than a participating parent."

The report proposes the creation of a Commission for Children and Families that would strive to stop making the child come last. The commission would be instituted by business and government at both the national and local level and contain representatives from management, labor, and government, as well as parents and children themselves. It would, among other things, undertake the difficult task of trying to change American work patterns. This would include pressing for:

- Flexible work schedules allowing mothers or fathers to be with children when they are most needed—for example, when children get home from school, or when they are sick.

- Minimizing out-of-town, weekend, and evening work. "The introduction of a family oriented personnel policy minimizing such obligations," the report maintains, "would . . . help attract and hold more able personnel, for the most capable and responsible staff are also likely to be those who care most about their families."

- Reducing geographic moves. "The impact (of moves from one town to another) is hardest on children," the report notes, "since healthy psychological development requires some degree of stability and continuity in the social environment from childhood through adolescence. A pattern of life which repeatedly tears the child away from familiar friends, schools, and neighborhoods increases the likelihood of the child's alienation both within and outside the family."

- Increasing the number and status of part-time positions "so that employees who wish to give a larger part of their time and energy to parenthood or other activities with children can do so without sacrificing their career opportunities and rate of income." In this regard, the forum also proposes the drafting and adoption of a Fair Part-Time Employment Practices Act.

"Children need people in order to become human," the group states. "The fact is fundamental because it is firmly grounded in both scientific research and human experience. It is disturbing because the isolation of children from adults simultaneously threatens the growth of the individual and the survival of society."

The mass media

The Children and Parents report hits on another subject common to many reports, which emerged as a major Conference theme: the poor use of the mass media. It views television in particular as at present further isolating children from their mothers and fathers. Like several other forums, including one dealing specifically with the media, the Bronfenbrenner group urges new television programing for children. What is needed, it asserts, is programing "which no longer casts the viewer in the role of passive and isolated bystander, but which instead involves family members in activities with each other in games, conversation, and joint creative activity." It finds "nothing inherent in television technology which precludes this possibility."

This position is remarkably similar to the one taken by the separate forum concerned with the mass media, headed by Fred Rogers, creator and chief inhabitant of educational television's "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood." "Hopefully," the report of that forum states, "dialog between media producers, child guidance experts, and others will lead to programs that encourage active participation, interaction, and continuing dialog among different groups of the general public."

The media forum's prime proposal—which its report asserts "can and must be implemented immediately"—is for the creation of an Institute of Child Development and the Mass Media. The Institute, funded jointly by the Federal Government and the private sector, would bring together child develop-

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Noel Epstein is a staff writer for the White House Conference on Children and Youth. Before taking this position in early 1970, he worked as a reporter and editor for the *Wall Street Journal* in Washington, D.C., and New York City.

ment specialists with program developers and other representatives of the media; award scholarships or fellowships, or both, to encourage the combined study of communications and child development; provide assistance for training community workers in the use of mass media materials; and issue studies on the effects of commercialism in children's programs.

Parent education

An equally striking media proposal comes from a separate forum report dealing with the "Emergence of Identity." This one, again reflecting the Conference's concern with parent education, proposes a "Sesame Street" type program for parents.

Led by Paul E. Torrance, chairman of the Department of Educational Psychology, Measurement and Research at the University of Georgia's College of Education, this forum comments:

"Although some parents intuitively meet the needs of their infants and children, many parents do not recognize the importance of their role in the development of their child's identity. And despite the essential nature of that parental role, the training of human beings for parenthood is left almost entirely to chance."

The television parent workshop it proposes would, "through high-impact, easy-to-understand techniques . . . assist parents with 'how-to' information and techniques on day-to-day child-rearing problems; playing with, stimulating, and teaching the young child; and developing an understanding of a basic child development theory."

The report includes a plan for carrying out this proposal, calling for formation of a steering committee and an advisory board; presentations for fundraising to business, industry, and private foundations; involvement of management and advertising firms; and the preparation of guides to production. "It has to be fun to watch, not talky, very visual, with a positive, upbeat image. If it ends up nicknamed 'that diaper-changing show,' we lose."

Similar concern for parent preparation is expressed in the Bronfenbrenner group's report. It calls for improved training for parenthood in the schools by actually letting children care for other children.

"The best preparation for parenthood . . . is direct experience, under appropriate supervision . . . . Accordingly, from the elementary grades onward, children should be given the opportunity (not the 'duty') to engage in such activity. For example, an entire class might be invited to 'adopt' a kindergarten, day care group, or Head Start Center."

Advocacy for children

Throughout the Conference documents there also runs a strong appeal for Government actions. The need most frequently cited is for a system of advocacy for children. It appears in one report on child health, in another on children and leisure time, and in several other papers, as well as in a forum report dealing exclusively with the advocacy question.

The advocacy plan is given its broadest and strongest expression in the report of a forum led by Judge James J. Delaney of the Colorado Juvenile and Family Court. As proposed by this forum, the advocate primarily would be the day-to-day protector in the community of the child's rights in nearly all areas of child concern. He would step in when the child's "liberty or health is jeopardized, whenever he is deprived of a home, schooling, medical care, property rights, entitlements or benefits, or is subject to involuntary treatment."

Thus, if a child is severely beaten—an estimated 10,000 children each year are seriously abused by parents—the advocate might step in to get medical attention and possibly follow the case through until the parent is again deemed fit to manage the family. Parents in such cases often do not seek medical care for the child for fear of their actions being discovered.

If a child is suspended or expelled from school, the advocate might negotiate with the school on his behalf. If a child does not get proper medical care, he would strive to secure those services for him. The advocate and his staff of paraprofessionals would

The major recommendations and priorities for action adopted by vote of the delegates at the White House Conference on Children will be presented in the March–April 1971 issue of CHILDREN.

constitute the single, central body working solely for the child in the community.

As proposed by the Delaney forum, the advocacy plan would involve a Federal-local system, as does the advocate plan proposed by the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children. At the Federal level, the President would appoint a Council on Child Advocacy, which would direct the establishment of a Federal Office of the Child Advocate. The Office, among other things, would press for national legislation and strive to improve existing programs dealing with children. In effect, it would be seeking adoption of many of the other proposals of the Conference.

The Federal body also would develop guidelines for community or neighborhood councils on child advocacy. The local councils, which would represent all pertinent interests in the community, would employ the actual advocate and his staff.

While noting that "some specific and limited child advocacy now exists" on both the public and private level, the forum report maintains that "these services do not meet the day-to-day needs of the individual child in his own environment, nor are they designed to."

Health needs

The four forums dealing with children's health agree that the health care problem is so severe that the President and the Congress should immediately institute an advocacy system to safeguard all American children.

One group under the chairmanship of Donald C. Smith, M.D., professor of maternal and child health at the University of Michigan's School of Public Health, asserts that the implications for children of the seventies are "catastrophic" if the Nation does not develop a national health care program for them.

The forum chaired by Dr. Smith urges prompt creation of a national health insurance program for children. Citing various national health insurance proposals already under review in this country, the group says, "Our concern is not to evaluate the relative merits of any of the proposed programs." Its plan is advanced "within the context of a total family health care system. We are special pleaders only in the sense that we feel children should come first." Among the deficiencies in our current health care services, this forum cites:

- A death risk during the first year of life that is higher than that for any other age group under 65.
- An infant mortality rate that remains higher than that of 12 other developed nations and that is twice as high for American nonwhites as it is for whites.
- Delivery of mental health services to less than half of the children who need them.
- Health insurance that covers only 20 percent of the Nation's poor children.
- A system in which 21 million children under 17 do not see a physician even once a year and in which a million children are born to mothers who fail to get medical care during pregnancy.
- An accident rate that has taken the lives of more than 82,000 children since the 1960 White House Conference.

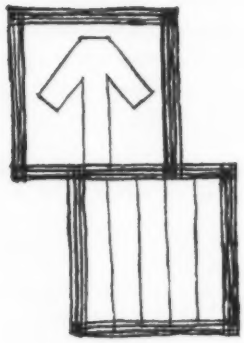
A health forum chaired by Morris Green, M. D., chairman of the Department of Pediatrics at the Indiana University School of Medicine, calls for the creation of child advocates at the national, State, and community levels to protect the health of children. The group sees these advocates as having generic training in pediatrics and backgrounds similar to maternal and child health officers, and as representing children's health needs in their localities.

Other proposals

Other forum reports also call for numerous Government actions. Among these:

- Establishment of a federally financed system of "cultural vouchers" enabling children from 3 to 16 years old to purchase services that would foster the healthy growth of identity.
- Enactment of legislation guaranteeing the right to high-quality, comprehensive child care services.
- Making family planning services available to the poor as an essential element of comprehensive family care.
- Adoption of a federally financed income-support program geared to local costs of living.

The question now, of course, is what will become of the recommendations. It is impossible to know at this point. The one thing certain is that much will depend upon those 4,000 delegates who are now back home again. It has all just begun.



PLANNED VARIATION in HEAD START PROGRAMS

JENNY W. KLEIN

Project Head Start was organized in 1965 to increase opportunities for preschool children of the poor by providing an environment in which each child has the opportunity to develop his full potential. As a comprehensive program, it offers such children a variety of services. Each local Head Start program must include the following components: Health, nutrition, education, psychological, and social services, parent involvement, and volunteer participation.[1] The emphasis Head Start has placed on the inclusion of activities in each of these areas has given substantial impetus to the development and application of innovative approaches to the delivery of services within each field.

In 1969 a major experimental program called planned variation, funded and coordinated by the Office of Child Development, was initiated within the framework of Head Start's education component. Designed to provide information about the impact of various preschool curricula on Head Start children, this experimental program should make a substantial contribution to the continuing effort to develop educational techniques for promoting the growth of all children, not only those who attend Head Start.

Although early childhood education is relatively new in this country, its value is now generally accepted. In addition, many people believe that early intervention in a child's life is an effective means by which to lessen or prevent later psychological, sociological, or educational problems. Various approaches to preschool education have been developed, tested, and presented in the literature in the last few years.[2-7] There is lack of agreement, however, as to which methods are best suited to successful intervention.

The broad Federal guidelines governing the education component or "daily activities" of the Head Start program reflect recognition of both the value of early childhood education and the existing diversity of opinion concerning preschool curricula.[8] There is no prescribed preschool curriculum for Head Start classrooms; nor does Head Start suggest that local programs adopt any "model" for their educational component. It places firm emphasis, however, on *good preschool practices* that provide children with opportunities to learn the skills appropriate to their age. In broad terms, it emphasizes the importance of giving a child ample opportunity to work and play independently, to learn to live effectively with himself and others, to develop a sense of identity, to experience many chances for success, and to sharpen and broaden intellectual, social, and physical skills. Thus, while following Federal guidelines, local Head Start programs may use a variety of methods to tailor their programs to the individual needs of their children and the community in which they live.

The planned variation experiment is an effort to explore the effects of several approaches to preschool education. A similar study is being made by Project Follow Through, a program designed to continue in elementary schools the comprehensive compensatory educational efforts begun in Head Start. Coordinated with Follow Through, Head Start's planned variation program is expected to provide information about—

1. The effect of various well-defined educational

strategies on children in Head Start.

2. The effect on the child of a continuous intervention program following the same educational strategy begun in Head Start and extended in the primary grades.

3. The lasting effect of specific program approaches. Can the rapid rate of development experienced in Head Start be maintained with all approaches?

4. The contribution of an intervention program in preschool in contrast to intervention in the primary grades.

5. The process of curriculum implementation. What does it take to initiate and carry out a new curriculum in a Head Start classroom?

Curricular models

The preschool curricular models or curricular approaches chosen for use in the study span the spectrum of current opinion in the field of early childhood education.[8, 9] Some of the models use a rather general approach; others are very specific. Some models are based on similar principles; others on quite divergent ones. For example, some place heaviest emphasis on the cognitive development of the child, on the assumption that training in this area will prevent later school failure. Others include the cognitive development of the child as only one part of their total program. Underlining the importance of the whole child, these curricular approaches take responsibility for the child's emotional, social, physical, and intellectual growth. Some models have been specifically designed for children from economically deprived families, stressing remediation, enrichment, and compensation. Others have been developed for preschool children in general.

The underlying philosophies of these curricula range from a psychodynamic approach to early childhood education to behaviorism and reinforcement theory. While some of the models are based on a belief that all learning must have a payoff and therefore provide children with tokens, raisins, or social reinforcement to reward correct responses, others are based on a theory that learning need not be externally motivated because it is intrinsically rewarding.

Several models are so similar in underlying philosophy that a classroom visitor might find it difficult to distinguish among them. Nevertheless, each model in the planned variation program has its own curriculum and characteristic way of implementing it. Some models use a structured classroom approach; others give children many choices of activities. Some models prescribe not only the content and structure of each day's activities, but also a detailed schedule that must be followed. Others provide objectives, guidelines, methods, and suggested activities from which the teacher can choose. Still others provide only materials and basic guidelines, suggesting that each teacher develop her program around the needs of her group. Thus, the role of the teacher varies from a didactic one, where she is directing all activities, to one where she structures the environment, provides learning experience and guidance, and observes the children as they choose their own activities.

All curricular approaches make some provision for children's play; however, in some of them play is only a tangential activity, while in others it is the core of the program. The latter are based on the assumption that preschool children learn best through play, direct experience, exploration, and experimentation.

Curriculum materials required by each model vary from automated teaching machines and formal programed textbooks to a wide array of toys, books, manipulative materials, art supplies, and doll corner equipment.

Despite the differences among these curricular models, the research design of the planned variation study established some common prerequisites for inclusion in the experimental program.

- Each model must have been tested in a laboratory school and must represent a well-formulated strategy for preschool education.
- The sponsor of the model must be implementing a curricular program for elementary school children based on the model's principles, as part of the Follow Through program.
- The sponsor must be willing to work within the framework of Head Start and the overall research design.

A program sponsor refers to an individual, a group, a university, or an industrial firm that is responsible for the implementation of a specific curriculum. While the sponsor of the model may also be the same group or individual credited with its original development, this is not always so.

During the school year 1969-70—the pilot phase—eight curricular approaches, selected on the basis of

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these criteria, constituted the planned variations in preschool educational strategy being studied by Head Start. A total of 1,750 children in Head Start programs in 16 communities were involved. As the planned variation experiment moved out of its pilot phase into its second operational year, its program was expanded by the inclusion of four more curricular models and the extension of the original models into additional classes in old and new communities. Today approximately 5,500 Head Start children in 37 communities are included in the 12 planned variations under study.

The following models are now part of the planned variation experiment:

The Bank Street College model, developed and sponsored by the Bank Street College of Education in New York City, represents a developmental approach in which the ultimate objective is to enable each child to become deeply involved and self-directed in his learning. Activities are planned both for groups and for individual children. The classroom is the child's workroom where he is free to investigate objects and explore materials. Opportunities for concrete, sensory, and motor activities are interrelated with opportunities for functional and expressive use of language.[10]

The behavior analysis model was developed and is sponsored by Donald Bushell of the University of Kansas. The goal of the program is to teach children needed skills by means of systematic reinforcement procedures. The teacher's role is that of a behavior modifier. Individual instruction is emphasized through the use of programed materials such as the Sullivan reading program (McGraw-Hill) and the Suppes mathematics program (Random House).

The academically-oriented preschool model is sponsored by Wesley Becker and Siegfried Engelmann of the University of Oregon. Originally developed by Mr. Engelmann and Carl Bereiter, this model is premised on the belief that every child can achieve well academically if he receives adequate instruction and if there is a payoff for learning. The approach used is structured and academic. Programed materials are used to teach essential concepts and operations in reading, arithmetic, and language.

The cognitive model, developed and sponsored by David Weikart of the High Scope Educational Research Foundation, presents a cognitive-oriented preschool program derived from the theories of Piaget. The program has three main foci: (1) the curriculum, which is cognitively oriented—that is, the teacher plans activities that help children develop the ability to think about physical and logical relationships; (2) the teacher, who participates actively in developing classroom programs; and (3) the home, where the teacher works with the mother to promote cognitive growth in the children. Learning objectives are stated as behavioral goals.

A pragmatic action-oriented model, sponsored by the Education Development Center at Newton, Mass., was inspired by the English Infant Schools. The objectives of this model are (1) to provide a flexible curriculum and schedule; and (2) to fashion classroom environments responsive to the individual needs of children as well as to the talents and styles of each teacher.

The Institute for Developmental Studies model originated by Martin Deutsch, was one of the first models specifically designed for the education of disadvantaged preschool children. It emphasizes both the cognitive and affective development of young children. Specific areas of attention include concept formation, perception, language, self-image, and social-emotional growth. Instruction is individualized through classroom management techniques, continuous teacher assessment, and work through small groups.

The Florida parent-educator model, developed and sponsored by Ira Gordon of the University of Florida, uses both classroom and home instruction through parent-educators.[11] A parent-educator is a mother from the local community who works with the parents in their homes, presenting each with weekly tasks. These tasks are individualized for each child to develop cognitive skills. The parent-educators also assist in the classroom.

Jenny W. Klein, as senior education specialist for Project Head Start, has developed and helped execute the planned variation project described in this article. Before assuming her present position in 1969, she was a supervisor of special education in Montgomery County, Md., public schools, and a director of the MARC Schools for Retarded Children. She holds an Ed. D. degree from the University of Maryland and has been an instructor there as well as at George Washington University in Washington, D.C.

The primary education project model is developed and sponsored by the Learning Research and Development Center of the University of Pittsburgh. The most critical component of this model lies in an individual progress plan for each child, which allows the child to work through finely graded steps of curriculum at a rate and in a manner suited to his own needs. The curriculum emphasizes the basic skills and concepts the child needs to learn to master a variety of subjects.

The responsive model, designed by Glen Nimnicht of the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, is focused on helping children develop both a positive self-image and intellectual ability. Emphasis is placed on increasing the child's sensory and perceptual acuity, language development, concept formation, problem solving, and abstract thinking. The child is encouraged to explore and find answers from responsive people, and responsive materials and equipment.

The Responsive Environment Corporation model uses specially designed learning materials and educational technology within a flexible classroom structure. The approach maintains a balance between structured and nonstructured activities and emphasizes individual, independent work. The talking page learning system (a teaching machine that "reads" to children) is used for language development. Self-correcting sensorial learning materials are provided for learning basic concepts and developing abstract reasoning.

The Tucson early education model, designed by Marie Hughes, is sponsored by the University of Arizona. This model emphasizes the development of language competence, intellectual base, motivational base, and social arts and skills. The curriculum is carefully structured but is flexible enough to allow for choices in activity and behavior, thus providing the children with opportunities to develop individual skills at individual rates.

The enabler model, designed by the National Head Start Office, emphasizes consistent technical assistance, rather than a specific curriculum. During monthly visits to the local Head Start programs, an early childhood educator first helps the program's staff and the children's parents formulate program goals and then develops means of attaining them. Since this model requires no specific curricular methods, the consultant's records serve as documentation of the techniques being used.

Implementation and evaluation

Each program sponsor in the planned variation experiment receives funds from the National Head Start Office to carry out his curricular approach in Head Start centers in several communities. The sponsors carry full responsibility for directing all educational activity in the designated Head Start programs. Working within the framework of the National Head Start guidelines and the demands of the local situation, the sponsors train the teaching staff, equip the classrooms, and follow whatever other procedures they deem necessary to insure that their model is being correctly implemented. Techniques for setting up their programs vary, as do their curricular approaches.

Several considerations went into the selection of the sites for applying the particular models in the planned variation experiment—the existence of an appropriate Follow Through program, the type of community in which the Head Start program was operating, the willingness of the parents and staff of the local Head Start program and other members of the community to participate in the experiment.

Thus, the research design limited the experiment

Play and learning go together in this Head Start center. In some programs play is tangential; in others it is the core.

to communities with Follow Through programs in which children could experience the same curricular approach in their early years of elementary school as they had had in Head Start. For example, a local Head Start program could be considered as a site for carrying out the Bank Street curriculum only if a large proportion of the children enrolled would subsequently be attending an elementary school where the Follow Through program was using the Bank Street model.

The type of community was taken into consideration and an effort was made to include a wide variety by situating the models in urban, rural, and various subcultural and geographic settings.

Staff members of Project Head Start's national and regional offices, and the model sponsors made preliminary selection of communities and visited local Head Start programs. In each community, they briefed Head Start parents and staff on the implications of participation in the planned variation program. Particular attention was paid to explaining the model—its goals for children, its methods of operation, and what would be expected of parents and staff. The final decision to take part in the experimental program was then made by the local Parent Advisory Council, Community Action Agency, and Head Start staff.

Evaluation of the planned variation experiment, designed by Lois-ellin Datta of the Office of Child Development, is being conducted by the Stanford Research Institute, which is also responsible for Follow Through evaluation. The research design includes a variety of measures for assessing the implementation of the sponsor's program, classroom processes, family variables in the participating families—such as status and family dynamics, and the children's cognitive and affective development. The development of children and their families participating in the various models will be compared with the development of (1) children and their families who are enrolled in regular Head Start programs, and (2) children in low-income and middle-class comparison groups who have not had a Head Start experience.[12]

In line with the Head Start policy of employing residents of its target areas, much of the testing, interviewing, and observation is now being done by people in Head Start neighborhoods who have been trained by the Stanford Research Institute for this purpose.

The planned variation study begins when the children enter Head Start and will continue through their Follow Through experience through third grade. Interim reports on the experiment will be prepared at the end of every year.[13] The final report, however, will not be available until all parts of the study have been completed and all the data analyzed.

Some early effects

The planned variation experiment has already had some noticeable effects on the field of early childhood education, particularly through its emphases on sequential education beginning at the preschool level and on the availability of a variety of preschool curricula. Recognition of the importance of sequential programing for children is stimulating public schools, Head Start centers, and nursery schools to begin coordinating their programs. Head Start programs and other preschool groups have also been influenced by exposure to the planned variation design to explore the possibility of adopting new curricula—formally or informally—in toto or in part.

This "ripple effect" will undoubtedly continue as the research data gathered in planned variation classrooms furnish new insights into the education of young children.

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BRIDGING THE CONCEPT GAP IN WORK WITH YOUTH

ALBERT S. ALISSI

So many concepts of adolescent behavior exist today that anyone who works directly with young people needs to get his own view in perspective, understand the various other vantage points from which he might view his subject, and take into account the young people's own attitudes and beliefs.

Implicit in many efforts by adults to understand and deal constructively with adolescents in modern society is the concept that most of the problems associated with this period of life would somehow disappear if only it were possible to "bridge the generation gap"—the break in the continuity of life styles between one generation and the next. This bridging concept suggests that the ideal relationship between the generations should be one of consensus and harmony, and further, that the major responsibility for creating such consensus and harmony depends in some way on the purposeful actions of members of the older generation. Accordingly, parents, teachers, counselors, social workers, and an entire army of youth workers who have already achieved full status as adults feel called upon to create the conditions for bridging the gap. Indeed, wherever the gap persists, society directly or indirectly holds adults to account.

A society undergoing social and cultural change—as is our own—necessarily exhibits stresses and strains that result in intergenerational tensions.

From an adult perspective, members of the older generation have a key role in the socialization process that perpetuates their cherished values, knowledge, and skills and makes these attributes available to the younger generation. Such a concept implies the maintenance of a smooth functioning social system that is relatively free from disruption. Accordingly, adults who believe that an established order is essential to society's well-being see the rebellion of young people as a threat. However, rebellion also may be interpreted as a beneficial sign of growth and development in the adolescent who, in the process, adds meaning to his life through the assertion of his own self-identity. Unfortunately, this basic dynamic of intergenerational relations is not widely understood.

From the adolescent's perspective, the older generation has to make room for every young person economically, politically, and emotionally if the young person is to realize his potentialities.

Concepts of adolescence

Adolescence has been defined as an intermediate stage between childhood and adulthood in which there is accelerated physical and psychological growth. Anna Freud has described the emotional aspects of adolescence in this way:

> **Adolescents are excessively egoistic, regarding themselves as the center of the universe and the sole object of interest; and yet at no time in later life are they capable of so much self-sacrifice and devotion. They form the most passionate love-relations, only to break them off as abruptly as they began them. On the one hand they throw themselves enthusiastically into the life of the community and, on the other hand, they have an overpowering longing for solitude. They oscillate between blind submission to some self-chosen leader and defiant rebellion against any and every authority. They are selfish and**

materially minded and at the same time full of lofty idealism. They are ascetic but will suddenly plunge into instinctual indulgence of the most primitive character. At times their behavior to other people is rough and inconsiderate, yet they themselves are extremely touchy. Their moods veer between light-hearted optimism and the blackest pessimism. Sometimes they will work with indefatigable enthusiasm and at other times they are sluggish and apathetic.[1]

Another concept of adolescence looks beyond the individual to the social aspects of the adolescent's behavior. This sociological perspective sees adolescence as an unstructured and ill-defined phase of life lying between childhood and adulthood. In this perspective adolescence is characterized by "crises in discontinuity of statuses," creating what has been described by Hans Sebald as "a poorly structured no man's land." [2]

An adult cannot deal adequately with the adolescent unless he recognizes that the adolescent experience has physical, psychological, social, and cultural dimensions. Although it is useful to isolate one dimension for analytical purposes, such emphasis can be misleading. The adolescent experience is best understood when it is seen as part of a larger functioning whole.

Viewing adolescence not only as a distinct entity but also as a pyschosocial phenomenon in interaction with other social phenomena may help explain the paradoxical nature of some adolescent behavior. Close examination may reveal that a difference in responses depends upon the context in which the young person finds himself. For example, in relation to adults, the adolescent may be confused, uncertain, and vague; in relation to his peer group, the same adolescent may be clearly motivated and precise—an accomplished member of a subculture who has found role security. In the sociological view, then, every analysis and every interpretation requires that the interrelationships of the adolescent and various groups be considered simultaneously.

What adults perceive or overlook in their attempts to make sense out of adolescent behavior is influenced by their own concepts. For example, if an adolescent displays fear and anxiety, the psychoanalytically oriented professional person may interpret these reactions as the outcome of libidinal impulses being turned against the self. On the other hand a sociologically oriented professional may interpret the same adolescent's anxiety as reflecting a state of normlessness or anomie that stems from the social structure. Cultural goals, institutionalized means, status deprivation, role confusion, and similar concepts are at hand to explain the behavior. Inasmuch as any analysis is influenced by the frame of reference used, the responsible youth worker has to be conscious of his own perspective.

For some time the behavioral sciences have been engaged in a frustrating search for concepts that in effect will integrate both pyschological and sociological explanations of behavior. Until such integration is possible, there remains the danger of forcing the data to fit the concepts developed within an isolated, narrow context. Moreover, sometimes concepts originally designed to explain particular phenomena are erroneously applied to different, unrelated phenomena.

The nature of the diverging concepts is perhaps best illustrated by ideas identified with the psychological and sociological frameworks utilized by professional persons who deal with adolescents.

Psychoanalytic view

Psychoanalytic theory, due largely to its pervasiveness in American professional thought, is a rich source of concepts for youth workers. The classical psychoanalytic view of adolescence emphasizes that changes during puberty upset a balance established during the preadolescent years between the ego, or conscious self, and the id, or unconscious drives. A resurging oedipal complex in early adolescence brings with it derivatives of primal impulses and aggressive drives. The adolescent struggles to free himself from such incestuous impulses, an action that leads to rejection, resentment, and hostility toward parents and other authorities. In the psychoanalytical view confused behavior at adolescence is an external indication of adjustments taking place internally and is a sign of normal growth. Conversely, a steady equilibrium during adolescence suggests abnormality.[3]

This orthodox psychoanalytic position has been modified by Erikson, Fromm, Horney, Sullivan, Bettelheim, and others who emphasize the role of social factors in the developmental process. In respect to the generation gap, attempts to understand the adolescent solely in psychological terms are inadequate. As Bruno Bettelheim has pointed out, ". . . the problem of generations is at best a psychosocial one, and can never be dealt with on a purely psychological basis." [4]

Furthermore, Erikson has observed that identity formation, while critical to young people, is really a generational issue.[5] His concept of ego identity

represents the search for an inner continuity that matches the outer social circumstances.[6] The term "identity crisis" has taken on a normative meaning when applied to adolescence. "Crisis" does not connote impending catastrophe, but rather a necessary turning point at a "crucial moment" when development must move one way or another in "managing resources of growth recovery and further differentiation." [5]

In the main, the identity concept concentrates on the fusion of a variety of elements—such as identification, capacities, opportunities, and ideals—into a viable self-definition. Adolescents vary in the tempo in which they find an identity. Some crystalize identity early and so avoid diffusion; others, who do not seem to find themselves, try out various identities and exist in a kind of "psychosocial moratorium."

Social perspectives

A different view focuses on the social and cultural determinants that in a sense create the adolescent condition. The unstructured or ill-defined social position so characteristic of adolescence stems largely from two factors in society: a division of labor that requires complex technical skills; and the failure of the cultural system to provide a meaningful ideology that gives the young person a strong sense of identity and feeling of purpose. The emotional instability and general turbulence associated with adolescence arise then out of the indeterminate status of the adolescent in the social structure rather than from innate constitutional causes.[2]

Unless the social and cultural systems are altered, instability will continue to be the normal state of adolescence, according to this view. Young people in industrialized nations find it difficult to develop stability because they seldom receive recognition for their actual or potential contributions to society and they frequently are denied opportunities to take a significant role. The komsomols of Soviet Russia and the kibbutzim of Israel are exceptions, as were the Nazi youth organizations.

However, instability in adolescence, producing social and cultural unrest, is much more symptomatic of a modern industrially developed society. For example, England has its teddy boys, Rockers, and Mods; Russia, its stilyagi; Japan, its thunder boys; France and Germany, their Americanized teenagers and hippies. Societies now in the process of industrialization can be expected to create their own adolescent phenomena in the future.

A somewhat different view sees society as manipulating the adolescent into patterns of mass conformity. Society "dampens out" questioning, conflict, rebellion, and all other stress for the adolescent. Because he does not experience the stress and strain usually related to growing up, he is deprived of the opportunity to establish his real identity. Therefore, adolescence, being minimized as a developmental phenomenon, is vanishing.[7]

Some adolescents refuse to conform. Youthful protesters who have made deep commitments to changing current social and environmental patterns can be seen as a reminder that idealism is not dead, "but entrusted afresh to each new generation." [8] On the other hand, the new alienation has been interpreted as a form of rebellion without a cause, of rejection without a program, of refusal without a vision.[9]

Some professional youth workers interpret the role of the youth culture, or peer group, as essential in helping its members achieve full adult status. According to one view, the training that the adolescent receives from his family is not adequate for developing full identity and social maturity. With help from a group of young people of his own age, however, the adolescent is able to make the transition from the "particularism" of the family to the "universalism" of the larger society.[10]

Another perspective sees the adolescent subculture as fast becoming a distinctive life style with a language and value system of its own. This perspective suggests that society is no longer confronted with a set of individuals to be socialized into adulthood, but instead is faced with an adolescent social system that offers a united front almost impervious to adult intervention.[11, 12]

Practical implications

The failure to integrate these psychological and sociological perspectives has intensified isolated attempts to interpret and understand adolescence. For workers who are pressed to serve young people in meaningful ways, this lack of an integrated base of knowledge that realistically depicts the totality of man's existence is a severe handicap. Specific practices and techniques used by youth workers correspond to and are influenced by the views that prevail in the various professions. Teachers, guidance workers, social workers, recreational specialists, and other adults interpret adolescent behavior in ways consistent with the goals and objectives of their own professions. Furthermore, the adoption of specific

concepts often leads to the application of predetermined practices and skills.

For example, educationally sound principles constitute the conceptual framework in which teaching techniques are developed. Ideally, teachers see the adolescent as an individual to be guided in intellectual growth. Such teachers handle classroom problems with tried and accepted methods. Their success is measured in the learning that takes place among their pupils.

In contrast, the more radical techniques of the free-floating neighborhood gang worker stem from another set of predetermined concepts. He sees the adolescent as an integral member of a group of peers reacting to a hostile social setting in which opportunities are limited and the future holds little promise. The worker's success may be measured by the lessening of group conflicts, the establishment of "healthier" attitudes, and the curbing of delinquent activities.

The problem of integrating viewpoints also exists within the helping professions. For example, the three major methods of social work—casework, group work, and community organization—are focused on the individual, the small group, and the community, respectively. Everything that has been said about adolescence has implications for providing service that is much broader than any one of these categories.

Specialized approaches reflect selective biases regarding what the real world is all about. Problems in real life, however, do not fit neatly into schemes for categorizing and understanding them. In spite of the competing claims made on behalf of various concepts, no single model for interpreting behavior accurately reflects the totality of life experience based on complete knowledge. Those who work with young people are nevertheless expected to mobilize resources and give service as if such a body of knowledge were in fact available. Methods and techniques designed to meet the complicated requirements of adolescence are based only on selected aspects of the total reality, and their range of usefulness is essentially limited.

Yet, in time these methods take on importance far out of proportion to their original worth. The methods, skills, and practices themselves become institutionalized, no longer acting as means to an end but serving as ends in themselves.

Furthermore, specialized approaches are gradually incorporated into organizational routine and, in the process, the search for alternative solutions tends to be discouraged. Even worse, the problems themselves are often neglected as they are modified and manipulated into ready-made molds and predetermined methods.

Illustrations

Two illustrations from social work practice form the basis for discussion of concepts already described. The first, which deals with efforts to help black adolescents, reveals how workers who hold an exclusive perspective have in a sense predetermined the method to be applied. The second illustration, an unusual incident in a multiservice neighborhood center, points up the complicated problem of coordinating practices among workers from various professions and services.

1. During a time of racial strife and rioting in a large city, a group of black militants organized neighborhood training centers to teach younger blacks how to make molotov cocktails. The militants recruited adolescents on their way to public high schools.

How should the situation have been handled?

On the one hand, this problem may be conceived in terms of an individual adolescent who at a specific stage in his development is skipping school and succumbing to dangerous environmental influences. On the other hand, it may be viewed as a community problem in which a deviant subculture is threatening young people.

Where the focus is on individual pathology as revealed by the adolescent's inability to withstand pressure from the militants, the approach is oriented toward treatment of the adolescent; where the focus is on social processes, the approach is an attack on poorly integrated social and cultural systems.

By adopting concepts predominantly related to the young person and his individual level of function-

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ing at a specific stage of development, the worker focuses his attention on the adolescent himself. Thus the adolescent's struggle to resolve his own identity crisis becomes important. The worker assesses both the current situation and the social history in terms of the adolescent's needs, problems, and strengths: the increase in instinctual demands of the ego, rejection of parents and other authorities, inadequate adult models within the family, the black militant model, use of fire bombs as a form of violence, identification with the civil rights movement, and guilt over skipping school.

Attempts to lessen pressures of reality would be made largely through helping the adolescent learn to cope with such pressures. Therapeutic goals might include supportive help, setting limits for the young person, dealing with his resistance in a constructive way, transference of his allegiance from militants to other models, and dealing with countertransferences. Parents would be included in the treatment.

When approaching the problem from a social-cultural perspective, the worker would view the emergence of a deviant form of activity as the subculture's response to what it considers intolerable conditions. Thus the black militants' program provides an ideology that the adolescent finds stimulating, exciting, well-defined, and unambiguous. Youth-service programs fashioned on the traditional mental hygiene model stand little chance of appealing to adolescents against such competition.

This view of the problem inevitably leads to a consideration of peer group influences, the degree to which the youth culture is integrated with segments of the adult community, the kinds of opportunities available to minority-youth groups, and so on. Practical new programs using successful black persons as street workers would link the adolescent group to the more stable adult society and to opportunities such as those offered by the Neighborhood Youth Corps and special training programs. Dealing with adolescents as they interact with one another and with adults challenges the worker to use informal group methods, learn the jargon of the peer group, and develop significant links between and among various neighborhood groups.

2. As previously mentioned, a major problem in the coordination of services at all levels of practice is the lack of an integrated set of concepts. Even when efforts to coordinate are most sophisticated, the final outcome often is fragmented services and a confused client, as the following example shows.

A multiservice community-based agency carefully organized its programs to provide a variety of professional services. Among its clients was an adolescent boy suffering from the inability to relate to others in his peer group. The boy desperately sought to obtain acceptance from other boys through boasting and fantasizing. The agency therapist worked intensively with him and his family to help him deal more realistically with his problems.

The crisis came during a period of innercity rioting, when some adolescents formed self-appointed vigilante groups to protect the neighborhood from imaginary invaders. As one of the participants, the boy obtained a rifle. In his clumsiness he accidentally shot himself, inflicting a minor wound. He quickly covered up his own inadequacies by boasting to the other boys that he had been shot in an encounter with an "invader." Reports of this imaginary incident spread quickly, creating anxiety, fear, and irrational behavior among residents of the neighborhood. In the panic that followed, an innocent bystander was shot.

While this example involves an extreme case, it illustrates how knowledge in one area of practice failed to complement the work in another area—even where coordinated services existed. The focuses of the therapist and the community workers dealing with the boy were essentially different and in effect bypassed each other. Although the therapist might have predicted some type of irrational behavior on the boy's part, the agency had no means for communicating such a prediction to other workers or for dealing constructively with the problem.

Synthesizing concepts

How can diverging concepts be brought together into more meaningful forms of practice? A conscious effort to integrate concepts into practice could lead to changing perspectives in some areas. Most essential to the process is the identification of the basic assumptions, implicit and explicit, upon which any service rests. Because unrecognized assumptions serve as cultural blinders, they tend to block new and unique practices.

As previously indicated, the bridging of the generation gap calls for the creation of stable conditions that permit both adults and adolescents to work out tensions and provide the adolescents with the opportunity to gain new status. A step toward synthesizing concepts would be achieved by accepting certain core themes in this regard. For example, if

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the concept involves the provision of newly created places in society for young people, youth workers could go outside the traditional boundaries of behavioral sciences to coordinate what is known about the identity crisis with knowledge of the social structure. Instead of treating individual pathology or manipulating social systems, the workers would use knowledge of the social structure to help the adolescent. The focus would be on finding ways to help adolescents search out their individual potential, encourage them to become actively engaged with other adolescents and with adults, and create a meaningful period of transition for young people in the society.

One cannot overemphasize the need to view adolescents and adults as an interacting unit; individually each represents only a part of the total reality. As the interaction of the two becomes the basic unit of concern, new guides for bridging the generation gap will be developed.

To apply this concept, agencies would redirect their activities at those points in everyday life at which young people and adults come together. Such action would call for a revision of most educational programs, youth-service agencies, and neighborhood and community centers. Without interfering with peer associations, both adults and young people could be given a share of responsibility for schools, agency centers, and economic and political activities. As the adolescent becomes a contributing member of his environment with new structured positions in decision-making groups and well-defined expectations for responsibility in service projects and economic enterprises, his involvement in things that matter would be greatly expanded.

At the same time, part of the emphasis would be on encouraging adults to accept adolescent upheavals as "natural" social events. In concrete terms, changing traditional attitudes may require educational programs aimed at overcoming negative reactions, both of adults and teenagers, that strain intergenerational relations and cloud the real issues. Conflicts would be institutionalized through new opportunities for community debate and shared problem-solving activities in arenas where community standards influence the behavior of young people. In his search for an individual solution to the identity problem, the adolescent would be encouraged to invent significant roles for himself in dealing with vital issues.

The dual emphasis on interaction between young people and adults may lead away from overspecialized services aimed at particular age groups. As it becomes apparent that success depends on skill in influencing the nature of the *interactions* between the younger and older generations, those who work with people may become less identified with a specific age group.

Admittedly, it is difficult to project a clear picture of services reorganized around different sets of concepts. Even as familiar programs and traditional ways of thinking about them become outmoded or ineffective, they continue to influence judgment, blocking easy access to new insight and fresh approaches to current problems.

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AN ATTACK ON IMPEDIMENTS TO EFFECTIVE CROSS-CULTURAL TEACHING

LAMORE J. CARTER • OLIVER D. HENSLEY

A little over a year ago, a 10-year-old black, deaf child in Monroe, La., had never attended school, had never played group games with other children, had seldom ventured from his home, and could not utter a distinguishable sound. Today, however, he speaks haltingly, "hears" through lip-reading techniques, shares the excitement of classroom games, and is engaged in learning activities that allow him to achieve continued academic progress and self-satisfaction.

What accounts for this change? The answer, in a sense, is simply, "He was given the opportunity to learn." But the question still remains: How did that happen? Of course, forces may promote immediate change and it is often difficult to identify the exact source that initiated the change process. However, certain college and public school people in Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi think that at least part of the answer to this question lies in a model for in-service training devised at Northeast Louisiana University. The success of Project LIFT (Laboratory Institute to Facilitate Teaching), a significant departure from traditional inservice training programs, leads these educators to believe that they can gain acceptance of and support for educational changes by the whole community if they train action research committees to devise and install preplanned changes in the public schools.

Project development

LIFT initiated a long series of unprecedented activities in the early part of 1968, when black educators and white educators from the Ark-La-Miss region met to formulate plans to produce biracial cadres of professional educators who would attempt to bring better educational programs for all children to their local communities.

The multistate and biracial approach to solving problems was a new and exciting experience for these educators. Sometimes the initial meetings of the principals for planning activities were awkward and filled with suspicion. In some instances, administrators of colleges less than 50 miles apart had never received an official visit from each other to discuss the pooling of resources to solve critical regional problems. The cooperative planning of many colleges, both black and white, with public school officials opened a whole new communication system based on interpersonal patterns that are now used with increasing frequency.

The goal of these early designers of LIFT was to retrain 96 teachers who had been assigned to racially integrated schools to use new teaching strategies and to innovate curriculum projects for improving instruction for every disadvantaged child. The project was funded by the U.S. Office of Education under the Education Professions Development Act in the latter part of 1968. It started the first of its four distinct stages of development in January 1969.

The first step, the awareness stage, was designed to sensitize the participants to the special needs of the disadvantaged child in their schools and to acquaint them with the resources that could help them meet his needs.

The second step, the design stage, was planned to encourage local civic leaders, action research committees, consultants, and neighborhood school repre-

sentatives to design special programs needed in their own specific areas.

The third step, the laboratory stage, was designed for trying out the plans. The participants spent 6 weeks in a pilot school where their plans were given a trial run in classes attended by disadvantaged children. After assessing the effectiveness of their designs, the action research committees revised their programs and applied them in their local schools during a semester of extensive field testing.

The last step, the demonstration stage, gave educators and lay people in the area an opportunity to see selected new programs operating successfully in integrated schools in their home district. The Project LIFT participants conducted tours of their new programs for parents and teachers when school was in regular session.

During the 18-month operation of LIFT, the participants and staff shared many successes. They also suffered a number of frustrations as they ran headlong into a long-established way of life.

Some problems

One of the first problems encountered by LIFT was the antagonistic attitude of news media and conservative politicians. After the first LIFT meeting, the local newspaper printed the inflammatory headline, "Plight of Negro Blamed on Whites," over a story of an interview with a LIFT speaker. This created a great deal of controversy in the community and provoked numerous hostile phone calls to the college by persons bent on finding out who was "stirring up trouble." Politicians misquoted LIFT speakers and distorted the philosophy of the program in the newspaper, on radio and TV, and at meetings of business, civic, and social organizations. They continuously condemned the project and asked for "public repudiation of insidious statements" and "an end to this outrage." Political pressure was applied to State commissioners and school officials "to end the misappropriation of the taxpayers' money to such ill-advised projects."

Quickly LIFT's staff and participants started for the first time to work for a change of the news media's attitude toward the project. Black and white editors, radio and television personalities, and politicians were brought as guests to LIFT seminars where they became involved in helping the participants devise strategies to enlist the aid of journalists in promoting educational change.

After several exposures to LIFT's philosophy, participants, and additional information about the project, the attitudes of key people in the news media changed from negative to very positive. Feature stories, TV specials, and radio interviews highly supportive of LIFT began to attack the basic reasons that new programs were not being developed in the schools. While LIFT did not drastically change the beliefs, attitudes, and values of all news people in this area, it did convince the influencers that the program would benefit the community and that they should support needed local educational programs and LIFT activities. As the news media became more supportive, the community at large became more receptive to proposed educational changes.

The most persistent problem for Project LIFT was racial prejudice. In almost every suggestion for change in the local schools, the often unspoken, but unyielding, resistance that prevented change was directly connected with opposition to promoting further racial integration. This resistance was evident in the awareness phase of LIFT as some of the participants openly opposed the program's basic philosophy of upgrading education for disadvantaged children in integrated schools. The concept of biracial teams working on common tasks was also repugnant to some of the participants, and some dropped out of the program after the first two meetings because they could not work with people of the opposite race.

Perception deficits

One of the authors of this article, Lamore Carter, functioned as LIFT's consulting psychologist. He identified the major problem in the area of attitude change for teachers working in an integrated school as the "Thing" and "Halo" phenomena, which he defines as follows:

1. The "Thing" phenomenon is the relative inability of most white Americans to perceive and accept black Americans without some prejudice based on imagined deficits.

2. The "Halo" phenomenon is the relative inability of most black Americans to perceive and accept white Americans except as persons fundamentally competent, "better," more knowing, and less likely to have faults.

In an address to the 96 LIFT participants, Dr. Carter described how these phenomena impede teaching.

"It is the 'Thing' phenomenon that makes it difficult or impossible for a white teacher, pupil, or school administrator in traditional educational environments to view and accept a black teacher, pupil, or school administrator as a person with no more than the usual human frailties. There is the constant and forceful expectation on the part of the white educators that some significant deficit of professional competence, personality, or character will be discerned in the black educator. Under such circumstances, the expectation is almost always confirmed, because the white teacher, administrator, or pupil is subconsciously searching for negative factors and has a limitless range of choices. . . .

"It is the 'Halo' phenomenon that makes black teachers, pupils, and school administrators look for more competence, perfection of personality and character in white teachers, pupils, and school administrators and find it when it is not there."

The discrepancy in perception represented by the "Thing" and "Halo" phenomena is due primarily to the cultural experiences that condition both blacks and whites to regard a wide range of behavior of whites as acceptable and natural in whites, and, at the same time, to regard similar behavior in blacks as artificial and imitative.

At first, participants tended to divide along racial lines and to come to the LIFT meetings as separate black or white units from their schools although their superintendents had told them to function as a single unit. Several months later, after they had been immersed in biracial work-study tasks and exposed to seminar leaders from various races, disciplines, and nations who specifically planned programs to make the participants more openminded, they voluntarily began to ride together and had apparently shed much of their traditional bias. These cognitive-affective deficits in LIFT participants were reduced by having black teachers and white teachers work together on practical problems existing in their schools.

Project LIFT assaulted another misconception. Prior to 1969, no summer school for elementary children had operated in the Ark-La-Miss area. The excuse for not supplying such opportunities was that disadvantaged children did not like school and would not attend if a school were opened. LIFT, with the excellent assistance of a courageous superintendent, opened a laboratory school that accommodated 200 disadvantaged students for 6 weeks. Many more children applied for admittance but had to be refused because of the lack of facilities. In 1970, several school districts on their own opened summer school programs for disadvantaged students and for the first time provided remedial programs for children with severe learning handicaps.

Demonstration stage

The shedding of myths and misconceptions, a major goal in the awareness and laboratory stages of project LIFT, was in a sense actually a means to another end—bringing about educational progress in the schools.

The laboratory phase of project LIFT provided the resources for teachers and community leaders to plan an attack on specific problems in their local areas. The effectiveness of their planning activities was tested in the demonstration stage. At this stage LIFT's staff and participants had the obligation to establish in local integrated schools demonstrations of innovative educational programs.

Bobbie Bowie, a teacher in Monroe, La., fulfilled her obligation by developing a program for teaching deaf children to lip read, to learn to speak through the EFI (Electronic Futures Incorporated) training system, and to work with materials and participate in social activities specifically designed to help them. Benjamin Boyte, a teacher in Concordia Parish, designed and conducted a course in drama to effect better verbal communication between students in an integrated all-boys high school. Last spring, his course was adopted in several schools in Arkansas.

A new approach to teaching science was initiated by Madolyn Abraham in Bossier City, La. She used the discovery method of teaching, relying on field exercises instead of textbooks or workbooks. She also helped black students and white students adjust to one another by assigning research projects to racially integrated groups as well as to individuals.

Elsie Warnock, a junior high school teacher in El

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Dorado, Ark., attacked the problem of apathy and absenteeism in poor readers of both races. She gave both individual and small group assignments, using books and other kinds of materials, reading machines, pacers, and tachistoscopes (a mechanical device that flashes a specific number of words on a screen for a governed period of time). Her students increased their academic achievement significantly, and as a result she found that their attitudes toward school had improved.

Two administrators, Ernest Choyce and Loyce Nute, initiated a special program for retraining 38 elementary school teachers in Morehouse Parish, La. They also converted a traditional academic program into an individualized program that rewards students for achievement.

Linda Bourgeois, a special education teacher in Vicksburg, Miss., initiated a success-oriented program to produce positive self-concepts in handicapped students by demonstrating techniques for teaching students to acquire feelings of pride of accomplishment and heightened aspiration levels. She was particularly successful in changing the attitudes of her colleagues toward children needing special education.

The Action Research Committee in Lake Village, Ark., consisting of several LIFT participants, instituted for all the teachers in the public school system an elaborate inservice training program to investigate problems related to school desegregation.

Joan Minor, language arts teacher in Vicksburg, Miss., constructed a black studies program for the sixth grade that provided special packets of materials to help black students and white students learn about Negro culture. In addition to using materials she prepared herself, she assigned her class group projects to collect contemporary information about Negro culture.

Sue Breland, a special education teacher at J. B. Cooley Hospital in West Monroe, La., instituted a special program for mentally handicapped children from economically disadvantaged families. The 15 children in her class practiced basic social, academic, and physical skills and thereby improved both their emotional and physical fitness.

Each of these demonstration projects has its own story. Each participant approached a problem differently and planned a unique attack. Each program now stands on its own base and is vigorously engaged in promoting better education for the disadvantaged. Project LIFT is no longer in existence, but through such demonstrations, the scope of its influence has widened and its spirit is continuing.

Major outcomes

Behind each of the purposes of Project LIFT was the necessity for changing the way black and white teachers, pupils, administrators, and nonschool people look upon one another. Faulty interpersonal perception generates negative interpersonal interaction. Such a project starts with candid acknowledgment that the pressing needs of our time demand that each person (teacher, administrator, pupil, parent, or citizen) cooperate to produce a learning environment free of impediments for all America's children.

Today, a significant number of black teachers and white teachers are effectively teaching black children and white children together, and experiencing commendably harmonious relationships in schools of the Ark-La-Miss region. Some say it is a "great pretense" that will soon blow up in the form of interracial squabbles. However, some very fruitful results have already accrued. It is now the responsibility of the participants to continue the promotion of good teaching in integrated schools.

Childhood is the form that upholds each child's life forever. If a man or a society taints a child's childhood, brutalizes it, strikes it down, and corrupts it with fear and bad dreams, then he maims that child forever and the judgment on that man and that society will be terrible and eternal.

Ned O'Gorman, "The Storefront," *Harper & Row, New York, N.Y. 1970*

VOLUNTEERING TO HELP INDIANS HELP THEMSELVES

EDMUND DIMOCK • BARBARA RIEGEL

Discontent over the plight of a neglected Indian tribe has prompted a group of social workers in San Diego County, Calif., to organize our own volunteer project to do something about it. Aided by other volunteers, we have developed a number of activities to resolve some of the educational and economic problems of the Indians who live on the Viejas Reservation in a rural area of the county 30 miles east of San Diego. The activities—at first resisted by the Indians themselves, but now enthusiastically welcomed—consist of a tutoring project for schoolage children, delivery of food commodities to the elderly and handicapped, and improvement of communication between the Indian and the white communities. We think that through our project we have demonstrated the considerable impact on social problems that professionals can make by volunteering their skills.

The Viejas Reservation is one of 19 Indian reservations in the county. In common with other reservations, its water supply and sewer facilities are inadequate, its housing is substandard, and it is not served by public transportation. Indians were moved to the Viejas Reservation in the 1930's when their original lands were sold to San Diego for a reservoir. Most of the small, unpainted wooden houses were built at that time; now they are in disrepair. There is electricity in most of the houses, however.

About 30 families with 50 children live on the Viejas Reservation. The younger children attend elementary school 5 miles away in Alpine; it has eight grades and an enrollment of 700. The high school, with an enrollment of 1,800 students, is 15 miles away in Lakeside. For many years these schools made little attempt to interest or retain the Indian students; they did not teach Indian culture until 1970–71. The dropout rate among the Indians who enter high school in this area is more than 80 percent.

A number of adults from the reservation work in San Diego or in nearby communities because there are no jobs on the reservation. The reservation church offers no social or cultural activities for the Indians, but some integrated cultural and recreational groups in Alpine are open to them.

The deplorable housing conditions on the Viejas Reservation and the others in the county are a result of many years of inadequate budgets for the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Moreover, BIA does not provide social or health services on these small reservations. The only social services are given by social workers from the county department of public welfare, who maintain regular contact with recipients of public assistance, and the school nurses, who provide health services for children at the elementary and high

schools. The nurses seldom visit the reservation, however.

Our involvement with the Indians started in April 1969 when 12 of us, members of the California Social Workers Organization, formed an ad hoc committee to help the people of Viejas Reservation deal with problems that we had become aware of through our experiences with Indian recipients of public assistance.

We realized that we could not satisfy such major needs as housing and sanitation. All of us felt, however, that we could play a significant role in easing two situations that the Indians particularly resented—lack of awareness on the part of the schools regarding the needs of Indian students and a general lack of communication between Indians and other residents of the community.

Overcoming resistance

Initially, we had difficulty convincing the Indians that we really wanted to help them. Our committee offered its services to the Intertribal Council, an OEO-funded organization designed to help the Indians on reservations improve their living conditions, but nothing came of this. When the Intertribal Council sposored a meeting on housing problems, however, one of the social workers assigned to the Viejas Reservation obtained an invitation for several members of our committee to attend. Specifically, we were asked to furnish a speaker to describe the provision in California's public welfare program for funds for special housing needs. We shared the platform with representatives from the Intertribal Council of California, the Indian community action program, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, and the Department of Housing and Urban Development.

The committee members who attended this meeting observed the Indians' ambivalence toward "outsiders." On one hand, the Indians appeared to want help; on the other, they tended to reject proffered assistance because they did not trust non-Indians. More than once during the discussion, Indian leaders angrily spoke of white men who had offered to assist them but who never had returned with the help. They also pointed out that some white "helpers" had had ulterior motives—motives that resulted in exploitation of the Indians.

The meeting, although marked by "friendly suspicion," proved the starting point for our committee's subsequent work. That night the Indians asked one of our members to write an article for the newsletter of a statewide Indian organization about how persons receiving public assistance could obtain funds for housing repair.

Knowing that these Indians' experiences with white men have been characterized by broken promises, our committee members resolved that we would follow through on every project we initiated.

At one point during the meeting, the Indians discussed the U.S. Department of Agriculture's commodity distribution program, a Federal plan that makes staple foods available to low-income families. In San Diego County, the welfare department administers this program and volunteer agencies distribute the commodities from centers to which the recipients must come. One speaker said that Indians who qualify for the program had to travel from 15 to 60 miles to reach a distribution center. Clarence Brown, the spokesman from the Viejas Reservation, described the difficulties that the older Indians had in obtaining commodities. With no public transportation available, many had no way to get to a distribution center. Others, after traveling long distances, sometimes found the distribution center unable to provide commodities. To remedy this situation, the Intertribal Council planned to set up its own commodity distribution center.

Later we learned that the Indians' distribution center would be located 60 miles away and would not be able to serve the Viejas and other Indian tribes in our part of the county. We then found a distribution center 30 miles from the Viejas Reservation that agreed to cooperate with us. The tribal spokesman and the tribal council helped us set up a commodity delivery service for 18 families on the reservation. Volunteers from the committee spent one evening each month working on this project.

From the first we realized that the Indians would not permit us to help them in meaningful ways until

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we gained their trust. The commodity project offered concrete evidence of our desire to help. However, because we did not involve the Indians in the actual pickup and delivery of food, we were not as successful with this project as we had originally hoped. Also, because of heavy demands on our time in providing services to the Viejas Reservation, we were unable to develop food distribution projects on any of the other reservations in need of similar services. However, we helped representatives from two smaller reservations arrange to get commodities from a nearby distribution center that had not previously been open to their people.

As an outgrowth of our demonstration of the need for a countywide food delivery service, last fall the Intertribal Council obtained a truck, and hired a food commodity coordinator and a driver. These positions are both staffed by Indians. When the Indian delivery service began in September 1970, we discontinued that part of our activities because there was no longer a need for our volunteers to deliver food.

Interesting others

During our activities on behalf of the Indians, we found that as a segment of the county population they were an almost invisible minority; the average white citizen of our county was unaware of the number, location, and population of the reservations. This was true even in the small city where the Viejas Reservation Indians shopped. Moreover, the white residents who did know about the Indians were not particularly concerned. Their idea of help was to donate their discards—broken toys, wornout appliances, and clothing with buttons and zippers removed. Both the adults and children who received the items were disgusted; one Indian parent said, "I don't know *anyone* I would give old things like that to."

To date we have been unable to change this pattern of giving, undoubtedly because the givers have a stereotyped image of the Indian and a general lack of information about his needs. Those of us who work with Indians know that their needs are no different from the needs of other minorities—better education, jobs, and housing. Most of all they need to be recognized as individuals who have a contribution to make to society.

In the eastern part of the county, a group of merchants, public officials, and school administrators was working to modify the community's white, middle-class attitudes toward minorities. Although blacks and chicanos were represented in this group, there were no Indians. Our committee sent a speaker to describe our commodity distribution project to this group, which showed a great deal of interest in local Indians and their problems.

After the meeting a local newspaperman interviewed several of us about our committee's work. We convinced him that the Indians' plight was much more newsworthy than our committee's small efforts, and arranged for him to meet Mr. Brown, the spokesman for the reservation. Since that time the daily newspaper has published several articles and editorials about the Indians' problems.

The community group promptly took up the Indian cause with fervor. Devoting many meetings to the subject, the group heard speakers from the Public Health Service and the Bureau of Indian Affairs discuss the water problem, which was different for each reservation. Its members arranged tours of local reservations, led by tribal leaders and Bureau of Indian Affairs staff. Next the group held an open house at a local high school to enable interested white citizens to meet and talk with Indians about their needs, including an adequate water supply. As a result, its members solicited funds and materials from businesses to improve conditions on the reservations. They obtained pipes through the Sears Foundation to use in replacing the waterline to the Viejas Reservation. The work is now being done by Mr. Brown and some volunteers. The community group also sponsored a Human Rights Day that honored racial and ethnic minorities residing within the community.

Tutoring

Our committee has also been involved in tutoring schoolage Viejas children. We proposed this tutoring project during a meeting of the Viejas tribal council. The council members cordially received our offer and told us that they were willing to provide the clubhouse and utilities at their expense. Mr. Brown, the tribal spokesman, assumed overall charge of the project, as he does for all reservation matters.

Neither the elementary nor the high school offered a balanced presentation of Indian history in its curriculum. Textbooks contained only the cowboy-and-Indian type of reference. Moreover, Indian parents had keen memories of the slights they experienced over the years at the hands of teachers, administrators, and school nurses. For example, although the Indian children were meticulously groomed, the

Viejas Indian children in San Diego County, Calif., get help from a volunteer tutor who visits the reservation weekly.

nurses frequently asked the children about personal hygiene and bathing. Ironically, the California Indians have had a long tradition of daily bathing, in the belief that it makes them stronger and healthier. Teachers described Indian children as withdrawn in the classroom and prone to fighting on the playground. The fights frequently stemmed from the racial slurs that the children experienced—such as "dirty black Indian" or "nigger."

Because of our own observations of the high dropout rate of Indians in the ninth or 10th grades, members of our committee considered the tutoring project vital for helping these Indians achieve expertise in asserting their rights. The views of the parents coincided with ours, and most of them have received this project with enthusiasm. The tribal spokesman delegated to his sister, Florence Barrett, secretary of the council, the task of assisting us in establishing the tutoring project. She contacted parents, gave us information on each child on the reservation, and made arrangements for all the preliminary meetings and tutoring sessions at the clubhouse. A consultant on Indian languages to the linguistics department of the University of California at San Diego, Mrs. Barrett has a keen interest in seeing her own four children complete college. It is doubtful the project could have been sustained without her dedication and help.

Some tutors volunteered after reading newspaper stories about the project; others were recruited by friends. The tutoring group eventually included 35 people, including 12 public welfare workers, a number of college students, and several housewives. Each volunteer tutor donated a minimum of 3 hours a week. Generally, the initial group has remained active, except for two social workers who returned to graduate school. Although most of the tutors worked or lived within 20 miles of the Viejas Reservation, few of them had had any knowledge of Indian problems before joining the project.

The tutoring "school" began operation in June 1969. It now has 35 elementary school children attending. We have emphasized reading and mathematics, although we have helped students in all their school subjects. Because of the limited time any one tutor could devote to this project, we planned only one 2-hour tutoring session a week for each child. A measure of the school's success is the large number of children who drop in without appointments to obtain help with homework. Some evenings when we are swamped with drop-ins, we utilize older students to help younger ones.

From the beginning the tutors noticed an overwhelming, almost immobilizing, lack of self-confidence in the younger children. By the time they had passed the sixth grade, the children had developed a hostility toward school and an attitude of not caring about their progress. This might be called the predropout syndrome.

In addition to academic help, we arranged special activities for the Indian children, such as picnics, trips to the zoo and beach, a tour of the college that several tutors attend, a Halloween party, and a Games Day on Labor Day.

Public school teachers told us that most of the children who were tutored showed improvement during the last school year. These children seem to be most interested in music and art, while arithmetic and reading remain rather tedious subjects for them. In several of the readers that the schools donated to us, we found prejudicial stories perpetuating the image of the primitive Indian. Eventually we discontinued using such books.

We were unable to reach the Indian high school students on a sustained basis. Of the six we knew of, two were good students and did not need us, while four who needed a considerable amount of help were too embarrassed to admit it. They remained interested bystanders and enjoyed the social contacts with several tutors. By the end of the year, three of the marginal students had dropped out of school.

Stimulated by the interest of Indian parents in educational courses for themselves, the adult divi-

sion of the high school initiated an adult school at a convenient location on the Viejas Reservation in April 1970. Establishment of this school was a most gratifying result of our contacts with the tribe. High school level courses were taught from April through June. The first class included seven adults and five recent high school dropouts, three of whom we had persuaded to enroll. Funds have not been available to continue classes in 1970–71.

Changing attitudes

Although our tutoring project brought no direct improvement in the teenagers' school performance, we made some progress in changing attitudes of teachers and administrators toward the Indians. Committee members held numerous meetings with the school guidance staff to try to establish communication between them and the parents and to foster a more understanding approach on the part of the school toward the students. The high school responded by requesting funds to employ an Indian teacher-counselor to develop more relevant materials and methods for the Indian student. This special project began in September 1970, under the direction of a Sioux Indian as teacher-counselor. A former volunteer in our tutoring project, she is admired by the Indian residents for her talents and her pride in her cultural background.

A junior college scholarship program for students of minority groups, including Indians, is scheduled to get underway in September 1971. When funded and implemented, the program will offer courses on the reservation to anyone over 18 years of age. Indians will participate in formulating the courses of study.

After several meetings at the reservation clubhouse, communication between the Indian parents and the school improved. The parents, who had previously withdrawn from contact with school personnel, were surprisingly outspoken in their criticisms of past and present injustices occurring in the school. Voicing their belief that the white schools did not want their children, the parents cited many incidents arising from misunderstandings as proof of this. They told of insulting remarks made by white students or teachers, which they viewed as part of a general pattern to discredit Indian children. Furthermore, they said that whenever fights erupted at school, Indian children were automatically blamed as the instigators. They charged that their children were treated as slow learners. As children these parents had attended the Alpine grammar school during the 1930's and 1940's when there were separate restrooms for "Indians and colored." Many problems remain in relation to the public schools, but the initial steps toward greater understanding are taking place.

Although the people on the reservation have no outstanding artifacts or commercial products, they have preserved certain elements of their culture. Most of the middle-aged and all of the elderly Indians know the Diegueno language, but they have made no formalized attempt to teach it to the children. After listening to some members of the tribe express concern that their culture and language are dying, we decided to initiate a course on their culture for the children with the aid of parents and a local anthropology professor. So far, however, we have not had an opportunity to work on this project.

At the beginning of our volunteer work on the Viejas Reservation, we were bombarded with attitudes of hopelessness, even on the part of very young children. "It won't work" was the standard response to our efforts. We now hear parents say indignantly that the school owes their children a decent education. In spite of a tradition of never expressing anger, these Indians have begun to do so. It seems to us that they are aware of changes in the white society's attitudes toward minorities that will inevitably lead to improvement in all areas of their lives.

One byproduct of our committee's project is the education we have received from our association with the Indians. We have had the rare opportunity of learning directly from the Viejas Indians themselves about their values and life styles. These encounters have been uniquely enriching experiences for us.

a report from abroad . . .

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN KOREAN SERVICES FOR CHILDREN

HELEN MILLER

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Twenty years ago the Communist forces crossed the 38th parallel into South Korea, and the country became for 3 years an international battleground. As always in a country that is being fought over, children were among the major victims. The children who were maimed or orphaned in that war have now grown up, but the country's social services to children still reflect some of its aftermath—in the dominance of institutional programs and in the dependence in large part on foreign support and technical aid.

The plight of the orphaned children after the Korean war caught at the heartstrings of Americans, and financial aid poured into the Republic of Korea in abundance. Only in the past year have funds from overseas begun to decline.

In 1953 the country's economic and social structure was practically in shreds. At first mass care was the only means of insuring survival for orphaned children and widows with small children.[1] The number of orphanages increased from 38 in all Korea in 1945 to a peak of 602 in South Korea in 1967.[2] The terms "social service" and "institutional care" became almost synonymous.

While the Republic of Korea is committed to establishing a broader network of social services and economic assistance, the current 5-year plan is focused almost entirely on economic development and defense. In fact, only 2 percent of the national budget is allocated to health and social services. The public family economic assistance program, which provides the equivalent of $3 per month per recipient, aids only 2,000 children. At the same time 62,000 children live in 557 institutions financed largely through contributions from western countries.[3]

Institutional care

Why are there so many "orphanages" and why have they continued to function so long after the end of the war?

There are many reasons. For one, there has been a continuing inflow of a new kind of "orphan"—the abandoned child. These children have been left in bus stations, in clinic waiting rooms, and on the doorsteps of institutions. The number of abandoned children rose from 715 in 1955 to a peak of 11,319 in 1964. In 1969 it was down to half that number—5,663.

Nearly all the children's institutions are privately owned. In many cases the superintendent-owners are loathe to close down because this would mean not only losing their incomes, but also depriving their own children of future employment. Moreover, Government regulations make it difficult for an owner to recoup the sizable investment required for incorporation.

Some superintendents have set up institutions near American military installations because servicemen give direct service, such as medical care. Many U.S. Army units support such institutions.

In addition, there is another kind of "orphanage child"—one who lives in an institution while remaining in contact with his family. The names of such children pad the roles of the "orphanage" to support requests for contributions from overseas. The Korean Government reports that over half the children in institutions have families.

Efforts to evaluate the institutions' services and develop alternative methods of helping children have been hampered by the frequent turnover of personnel and the lack of qualified social workers in the child welfare programs of the Korean Government and foreign agencies. However, some efforts have been made to improve institutional services. In 1957, for example, the Korean Government set up a National Social Workers Training Institute to give short-term training to child care workers, orphanage superintendents, and government employees.[3] Built with U.S. funds, this institute operates with technical aid and economic support from the United Nations Development Corporation and UNICEF.

The Mennonite Central Committee's training program for child care workers, begun in 1963, has been outstanding. The Swedish Save-the-Children Federation recently established a similar training program for day-nursery teachers. World Vision Hospitals have provided excellent medical services to orphanages at minimal cost. Nevertheless, care of children in Korean orphanages too often remains merely custodial.

Child abandonment

Why are so many Korean children abandoned? Poverty, once a major reason, has become less important as the nation's economy has become stabilized. Many children, born in and out of marriage, are unwanted. About one-fourth of the abandoned children are infants under 1 year of age. In this group girls outnumber boys as much as three to one, reflecting the Koreans' traditional attitude toward females. However, about 35 percent of the abandoned children are over 6 years of age, and two-thirds of this group are boys because girls over 6 can earn money as domestic helpers.

Lack of social and health services for families have been large factors in child abandonment. Tuberculosis, a disease that affects 5 percent of Korea's population, and other chronic illnesses have caused the breakup of many impoverished families.

Another reason for abandonment apparently is the parents' desire for education and economic betterment for their child. If they can benefit the child by giving him away, they will do so. In fact, children of poor families have

traditionally been given to richer childless relatives to adopt or raise.

Children in Korean orphanages have generally received more education than children in the average low-income family. A 1965 study of 188 adults who had been raised in institutions found that 79 percent were junior high school graduates and 10 percent college graduates.[4]

While school attendance is compulsory in Korea through the sixth grade, it is not free; when parents cannot pay the school fees, their child is forced to leave. It is not accidental, therefore, that many boys are abandoned when they reach school age.

Services to families

Some foreign social agencies provide help to families, but these programs are small in comparison to the great need. Save-the-Children Federation, (USA), which emphasizes rural development, provides that a portion of the money contributed by sponsors goes to the child and his family and a portion to the village for economic development.

In 1962 the Christian Children's Fund instituted its family helper service to provide cash for a child living in his own home. Previously the CCF only aided children living in institutions. Last year one-third of all children on CCF roles were helped to live at home or with relatives.

In 1965, Korea Church World Service upgraded its family relief program in Seoul to a family welfare service, under the direction of an American social worker. This program, now closed, had a twofold emphasis: demonstrating the value of professional social service to families and providing inservice training for staff members and students. Catholic Family Social Services have been set up in a few cities.

The Korea Lutheran Mission has integrated a small family welfare program into the local church structure. As part of the Diakonia program, it is designed to instill a social conscience in members of the congregation and create channels for them to help others in the community.

Unfortunately, the excellent cooperative and family-service effort in one of the Han River slum areas in Seoul[1] failed in 1969 for lack of funds. The project was supported for 4 years by several voluntary agencies as a demonstration of a program that the city should adopt, but the city failed to accept full financial responsibility. Nevertheless the program more than proved its worth: not a single child was abandoned from the area in its 4-year existence.

In 1965 several foreign agencies combined with the Child Placement Service, a semigovernment child care agency, to help children of mixed race accept themselves by providing counseling, economic help, education, and community involvement. Known as ECLAIR (Eurasian Children Living As Indigenous Residents), this low-keyed program has produced such results that Child Placement Service is now able to carry on the program alone.

In January 1966 an abandoned children's center was set up in Mokpo City by the Unitarian Service Committee of Canada. While abandoned babies are cared for, efforts are made to find the parents. If they are found, the parents receive counseling and material and medical assistance as needed to help them keep the child at home. About 17 percent of the children accepted for care in the center have been returned home. This program has received broad community support.

Changing emphases

The child welfare law of 1962 created the position of child welfare worker in each county, but the poor salary, low job status, and "boondocks" location of most of the jobs cause constant turnover. Many of the child welfare workers have only a high school education.

In the early sixties the Government sought to place orphanage children in foster families; quotas were set and Government employees were expected to take children into their own families. This program was unsuccessful.

Adoption agencies, beginning with International Social Service in 1964, have had greater success in finding Korean boarding homes for babies.

Early in the sixties the Korean Government, with technical and financial assistance from the United States, Sweden, and the World Health Organization, instituted a family planning program. Subsequently the birth rate has dropped from 30 per thousand in 1960 to the present 23 per thousand. While the third 5-year plan calls for the birth rate to be reduced to 1.5 percent by 1976, further reductions will be hard to achieve because of the value Koreans set on children, especially sons.

Day nurseries are increasing in Korea, and about 200 nurseries are enrolled in the Day Care Nurseries Association created in 1969 to upgrade child care. Institutions are being encouraged by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs to shift their programs to day care. Social welfare agencies have cooperated. Both private industries and the Government have established centers for infants of employed nursing mothers. In many cities day nurseries for kindergarten-age children have become businesses, and it is a sign of prestige among the newly rich to enroll their children.

The idea of day care is taking root in some villages, under the auspices of the Government's rural community development programs and voluntary social agencies. Usually local churches give their support.

Another encouraging sign is the program launched last year by the Women and Children's Bureau, Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, to carry responsibility for the welfare of all children. Previously the agency had been concerned only with institutional and vagrant children.

Last year the Labor Office also established a Section on Women and Children, to be responsible for protecting rights and preventing exploitation.

Adoptions

International adoptions of Korean-American children began in 1953 when the Seventh Day Adventist Church placed a few children with American families. These were soon followed by Harry Holt's efforts on behalf of "mixed-race" children. Although there

Reflecting the changing attitude toward adoption in Korea, these young parents complete arrangements for adoption.

are not many children of mixed race in Korea, such children meet with considerable prejudice because of Korean pride in "pure" family lines.[5] Most of them are the children of American soldiers.

The Holt adoption program places more Korean children than all other agencies combined. In 1969 the program placed 704 children with American couples. It now helps full-Korean children who are hard to place because of age or physical problems as well as mixed-race children.

In recent years two Korean adoption agencies have been formed. Almost from the start, they have placed full-Korean as well as mixed-race children in Canada and Europe and with American military families overseas.

The recently introduced western concept of society's responsibility for the welfare of all children is still alien to many Koreans, who follow the Confucian teaching that the responsibility for persons who are blood kin rests with the family.

Thus a behavior pattern almost as strong as a taboo is being reversed as Korean families are beginning to adopt children to whom they are not related. Probably more than 1,000 children were adopted in Korea last year. Most placements for adoption are made by superintendents of children's institutions or child welfare workers, who are so inexperienced in this new service that they have allowed families to "try out" several children. There is some reason to fear that girls are sometimes adopted to be used as maids.

To combat these dangerous practices, Christian Reformed Korean Mission is pioneering an adoption program to demonstrate quality service, set professional standards, and instill a broadened understanding of adoption. In less than 3 years the agency's placements of children in Korean families have tripled, although its eligibility requirements have become more stringent.

An abandoned Korean infant is examined upon arrival at a social service agency.

Needs of youth

A growing recognition of teenagers' needs for recreation has resulted in a request by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs for funds to build and repair playgrounds and youth halls. More important, the Ministry is encouraging use of local churches, schools, and public buildings for recreation.

In rural areas, the 4–H program is a potent force in giving young people pride in their own activities. Begun just before the Korean war, the 4–H Clubs in Korea have reached an enrollment now second only to that of U.S.A.

For a decade or more churches have run evening academic courses as well as Bible studies for young people who work during the day. Police departments have set up programs of residential care for street boys, and have encouraged them to shine shoes or sell newspapers; YWCA programs have included training in sewing, knitting, and embroidery for home industry.

Several Catholic orders have established residential vocational training schools for underprivileged young people, notably the Salesian Fathers' 3-year school for auto mechanics and the Good Shepherd Sisters' courses in typing. These are a refreshing change from the usual hairdressing and barbering courses.

Vagrancy among children is decreasing. After reaching a high of almost 30,000 in 1964, the number of vagrant children dropped to slightly over 20,000 in 1969. On the other hand, runaways have increased nearly 300 percent in 6 years—from 7,011 in 1962 to 20,663 in 1968. In a recent study of 200 teenagers who ran away for the first time, 50 percent said the major cause was "unhappiness with family."[6] Only 10 percent gave poverty as a major reason.

These 200 teenagers were lucky because they had been brought by the police to official reception centers. All too often youngsters arriving in a city without plans or resources get into real trouble; girls are shuttled into prostitution, and boys join gangs that live by theft. To prevent such social casualties, church workers in some cities meet trains and buses to spot newcomers and help them make realistic plans. Many such youngsters and their parents are desperately in need of counseling.

When they do secure employment, these young people have great difficulty finding housing. Although dormitory facilities are operated by the YMCA, YWCA, and the Government, they have long been inadequate, and only a few other social agencies provide housing. One solution would be for orphanages to be transformed into hostels or cooperative housing, but this idea has not caught on. Some enlightened factories provide dormitories for new employees.

Rapid urbanization, breakdown of close family ties and traditional values, and the imbalance of incomes have resulted in a growing problem of juvenile delinquency in urban areas. City police departments have set up special juvenile delinquency sections, but few are staffed by persons trained to deal with youth.

Girls' Welfare Association, a rehabilitation service for former prostitutes, was begun 12 years ago under auspices of a religious mission. It has become an effective catalyst in changing attitudes on how to deal with prostitutes. GWA's comprehensive program has been so successful that Kyongi-gi Province and Seoul City have asked the agency's caseworkers to upgrade the Government vocational guidance centers for such girls.

Thus, social services in Korea are gradually moving from institutional care to preventive help. Originally funded almost entirely from overseas, these services are slowly being supported by Koreans and assimilated or adapted into the Korean culture. Once Korea achieves an independent economy, the Government will be freer to turn its attention to the social welfare needs of its citizens.

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an essay review . . .

ADVOCACY FOR CHILDREN: CHALLENGE FOR THE 1970's

HENRY WORK *Professor, Neuropsychiatric Institute, School of Medicine, University of California at Los Angeles*

When "Action for Mental Health"[1] was published a decade ago, there was widespread concern among people involved with services to children that the child part of the population had been shortchanged. Children seemed to have been completely omitted in the very exciting proposals for the reorganization of mental health care in the United States. As a result of this concern, the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children was established in 1965, and its report was offered to the Congress in June of 1969. This report is now available to the public in the recently published book, "Crisis in Child Mental Health." *

The book represents a broad and comprehensive study of child life in America. It points to a host of ways of improving the care of children, many of which seem impractical. Yet it may stand as an important landmark for the next pair of decades in organizing services for children. But if it is to have a real impact on children's services, as well as in their lives, it will have to be read and re-read. It will have to be studied both for what its recommendations urge and for what they omit.

The professional persons from many disciplines, who wrote the basic material from which the report was derived and who collaborated in arriving at its recommendations, are to be greatly commended for pulling together a vast amount of knowledge about children in this country. The opening chapters discuss the society in which we and our children live in relation to its effect on the mental health of children in general; on family life; on children who live in poverty and on children of minority groups. The last chapter in this group, entitled "Emotionally Disturbed and Mentally Ill Children and Youth," presents a picture of the clinical situation as it exists today. Other chapters discuss the social-psychological aspects of normal growth and development in infants, young children, and adolescents, and education, employment, and research needs.

The success of the collaborators from a variety of fields in accumulating and presenting this wide spectrum of knowledge about children demonstrates the importance of collaboration and the joint presentation of material. Diversity of viewpoints shines through and affects many of the recommendations. Nevertheless, the book not only suggests that professional persons have a major role in understanding, alleviating, and modifying the progress of child development, but also emphasizes that they must unite in a political effort to see to it that the proposals outlined in the text are carried out.

The book presents a series of recommendations, based chiefly on its findings on the effects of American society on children. These recommendations urge all levels of government to expand services for children and to coordinate them. They renew the ever-constant plea for more community services and programs of a supportive, preventive, and remedial nature, and for more research pertinent to child development and ways of serving children. In addition they tackle the major problem of manpower and training with the most innovative and possibly the most important recommendation of all: the establishment of a system of advocacy for children.

This advocacy system is recommended to support existing services and a proposed grid of community services that would stem from the highest office in the land down into State, local, and community facilities. The recommendation derives directly from the premise of the Commission, stated clearly in the opening sentence of the book, "We proclaim that we are a nation devoted to its young." This intriguing sentence suggests that although we have made tremendous strides in thinking about children, our thinking has been only partly used in practical ways, at times misused, and too often abused.

Some omissions

The various technical chapters point out that the defects in our system of caring for children in this "century of the child" stem from many conflicting cultural factors. Some of these are spelled out; others are omitted.

*CRISIS IN CHILD MENTAL HEALTH: CHALLENGE FOR THE 1970's. Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children. Harper & Row, Publishers, New York, N.Y. 10016. 1970. 578 pp. $10.

In its description of the situation of minority groups the book clearly points out that while the benefits of middle-class culture nurture the development of children, the deprivations and the antagonisms experienced by minority cultures tend to hinder development. While some of the basic cultural taboos, biases, prejudices, and overt obstacles to progress are listed, the influence of strong societal forces in keeping minority groups down is not as well documented. The fact that there are political and social forces in our society that say to the poor, "you are poor and you should stay so" is not made as clear as is the impact of this type of thinking on the development of children. Thus the chapter on racism, which so neatly spells out the hazards to children of ancient biases, neglects much of the thinking that lies behind this noxious factor in our society.

Everyone concerned about children will be pleased that the report strongly emphasizes the importance of interest in problems of the very young child and his family. However, it does not present a clear blueprint of what changes need to be made to meet the needs of early childhood. There is no direct reference to the political forces that openly weep about the plight of resources organized to care for children and at the same time operate in a way that reinforces segregation, deprives the poor and the minorities of political power, and makes sure that the legal as well as the educational needs of many parts of the population are not satisfactorily met.

Thinking about children

In spite of these shortcomings, creative, idealistic, and innovative recommendations form the core of this report. Perhaps the most important message is that our thinking about children would be improved if we actually *thought* about children.

This is the concept that underlies the Commission's proposal for an advocacy system. Many professional persons have dreamed of an advocacy system of some kind that would focus the national effort on the needs and the worth of the child population. As proposed by the Commission, the advocacy system would be spearheaded in the Office of the President where an advisory group, invested with power, would assist the President in looking at the problems and needs of children. Such a group would extend its power, as well as its advice, downward to the health, social, and educational services throughout the country. Similar advocacy groups set up at State and local levels would be organized to look at the defects and gaps between services, resulting both from bureaucratic structure and from human frailty.

Such a network of advocates for children would make it possible to look at those things that impede the development of services for children as well as those that oppose the general health and welfare of minority groups. Not the least of the impediments to better service is the sense of competitiveness in our present system of services that prevents one service from appreciating the value of another. This type of myopia has often stood in the way of providing the broad range of help that is needed for children.

As I have already noted, professional persons of many types came together to write this document. They are to be congratulated for reemphasizing the gaps and the difficulties that exist in current structures of childrens' services and for demanding that the thinking about these services embraces ideas not only of professional persons from a variety of disciplines but also of lay citizens who must assume responsibility for supporting and enhancing the work of the professionals.

The main focus of the book is properly on prevention. Because of this, only one chapter deals with the clinical needs of emotionally disturbed and mentally damaged children. Still the needs of already damaged children must be taken into account in any consideration of the book's theme, "Crisis in Child Mental Health." One must remember, although the point is not noted clearly in the text, that the emotionally disturbed children of today will shortly become the parents of tomorrow and so spread their problems in a kind of generational chain reaction.

The tasks ahead

The advocate plan may be fraught with political danger, but it provides a challenge that cannot be avoided. It must be tackled head on along with the political and professional problems of providing preventive, educational, and remedial services. The task of the professionals will be to investigate some of the quarrels between preventive and remedial services that are evident in the text of this book.

The proposed system of advocacy for children presents some hope that services will no longer be built on the unconscious philosophy that children are second-class citizens. However, for such a proposal to have to be made in this country is in a sense an admission of failure—failure to live up to all that this country stands for. Obviously, as the book points out, everyone should be an advocate for children. The fact is that a large proportion of the population seems indifferent to the unmet needs of children. Why is this so? Until we can understand the fact that children are often a threat to us as adults, we will be left exactly where we were when the reports on which this book is based were written.

Young people throughout the Nation today are demanding "relevancy." To achieve such relevancy the readers of this book need not only to attend to its findings and recommendations, but also to attain an understanding of the difficulties intrinsic in the recommendations. With this book as a pilot, with its recommendations as guidelines, with a continuing search for practicality and ways of overcoming obstacles, and with constant attention to relevancy, we may fulfill the purpose behind the writing of this document.

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[1] Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health: Action for mental health: final report. Basic Books, New York, N.Y. 1961.

BOOK NOTES

MORAL JUDGEMENT FROM CHILDHOOD TO ADOLESCENCE. 316 pp. $7.50. MORAL EDUCATION. 185 pp. $4. Norman J. Bull. Sage Publications, Inc., Beverly Hills, Calif. 1970.

In the first book the author reports on the development of moral judgment in 360 boys and girls between 7 and 17 years of age as determined in a study completed in 1966. He found "striking" differences between boys and girls in almost all areas of moral judgment: girls are tempted with lying, deceit, unkindness, selfishness; boys with stealing, cruelty to animals, damage to property, self-indulgence.

"If concern for others is the heart of all morality, the female is inherently more truly moral than the male," the author concludes.

The study was based on a battery of written and verbal tests that the author devised to trace the development of moral judgment in terms of a four-stage scale. The author defines the four stages as anomy (anomie), or absence of rule—premorality stage; heteronomy, or rule imposed by others—external morality stage; socionomy, or social relations and reciprocity—external-internal morality stage; and autonomy, or self-rule—internal morality stage.

In his study he also investigated the relation between moral judgments and five key variables—chronological age, sex, intelligence, socioeconomic class, and religious background.

The study found no significant association of any of the variables with the development of conscience, although it did reveal an association between low socioeconomic class and cheating and lying, especially for boys. While the study identified intelligence as a constituent factor in facilitating development in moral judgment, especially for girls, it found that intelligence, of itself, does not guarantee high levels of moral insight and action.

In the second book, "Moral Education," the author analyzes his research in relation to its implications for the moral education of young children, those in the middle years, and adolescents.

The author is head of the department of religious education at St. Luke's College, Exeter, England.

BLACK GHETTO FAMILY IN THERAPY: a laboratory experience. Clifford J. Sager, M.D., Thomas L. Brayboy, M.D., and Barbara R. Waxenberg. Grove Press, Inc., New York, N.Y. 1970. 245 pp. $6.50.

This book is based on a role-playing demonstration in which four family therapists conducted separate interviews with the same simulated black intercity family during the 1969 conference of the American Group Psychotherapy Association in New York City. The "family" was composed of five mental health workers from the New York Medical College-Metropolitan Hospital Community Mental Health Center, who took roles of an unemployed father, depressed mother, pregnant unwed daughter, son who was a high school dropout, and church-going grandmother.

In addition to verbatim transcripts of the sessions between each therapist and members of the "family," the book presents comments from the audience discussion that followed the demonstration, retrospective comments by the therapists on their treatment styles and the theoretical framework in which they conducted their sessions, and comments by the mental health workers who portrayed members of the family.

The book discusses the problems of a white therapist in engaging a black ghetto family in treatment within the context of today's racial situation, as well as the problems of a black middle-class therapist in gaining acceptance by a black innercity family. It also examines problems in treating families whose primary concerns are subsistence and survival, the need for understanding in the treatment of such families, and the need for models of psychopathology that recognize the patient's family situation and his cultural milieu as determinants of disturbed behavior.

Complex problems that face family therapists are cited, including absence of the father; truancy, delinquency, or drug use in youngsters; and abdication of parental control. Underscoring the need for a reappraisal of current therapeutic programs for the poor, the authors suggest that therapists "move into the community and earn a place in it."

THE HIGH SCHOOL REVOLUTIONARIES. Marc Libarle and Tom Seligson, editors. Random House, Inc. New York, N.Y. 1970. 275 pp. $6.95.

This book is a collection of statements on reasons for student unrest made by 21 high school activists, selected from many more tape recorded interviews with the editors. When the project began in 1969, both editors were 24-year-old teachers in the New York City school system. They report that the statements selected for inclusion were chosen to give representation to various geographical regions; urban and rural areas; poor innercity, middle-class, and affluent neighborhoods; and public and private schools.

For the most part the students describe the conditions in their schools as "intolerable," their teachers as unqualified for teaching either intellectually or as human beings, and the school administrators as strictly authoritarian. They also expressed various degrees of disillusionment with the wider society.

DELINQUENCY BEHAVIOR IN AN AMERICAN CITY. Martin Gold. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, Belmont, Calif. 1970. 150 pp. $3.50.

Defining delinquent behavior as "offensive behavior of juveniles whether or not it is ever detected by authorities or anyone else," the author of this book says that there are "almost no nondelinquent adolescents." Most delinquent behavior is spontaneous performance, or action for approval, he suggests, and thus is a function of role inadequacy; when adolescents find themselves unable to live up to expectations in school, at home, and among their friends, they are driven to gain respectability in other ways.

Reporting on a study of teenagers in Flint, Mich., the author points out that interviews with 522 boys and girls between the ages of 13 and 17 revealed 2,490 admitted acts of delinquent behavior, all illegal, although some were relatively minor offenses. Only 3 percent of the group interviewed, or 47 young people, had police records.

According to the author, delinquent behavior seems most often to be a group activity for teenagers: in three-fourths of the admitted violations, two or more young people were involved. Nevertheless, the stereotype of an organized gang regularly and frequently committing delinquent acts together seldom fitted the Flint teenagers.

Parents were aware of at least one-fourth of their children's delinquent acts, the author reports, but they seemed unable to do anything about them. He also found that poor performance in school seemed to lead to delinquent behavior among boys, but not among girls.

A CHILD'S MIND: how children learn during the critical years from birth to age five. Muriel Beadle. Doubleday & Company, Inc., New York, N.Y. 1970. 294 pp. $6.95.

Addressed to "intelligent laymen," this book describes recent studies by psychologists and psychiatrists relating to the mental development of children and the course that learning takes during the earliest years of life. Children are never too young to learn, the author says, citing research to show that about 50 percent of the development of general intelligence takes place between conception and age 4.

In pointing out that children are highly individual, the author lists three variables that influence their development: biological inheritance; physical and social environment; and timing, or the point at which environment and heredity interact. Among other topics, the author discusses the biological bases of behavior, development of concepts, information processing in young children, measurement and inheritance of intelligence, and how environment affects intelligence.

GUIDES and REPORTS

TOYS AND GAMES FOR EDUCATIONALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN. Charlotte A. Buist and Jerome L. Shulman. Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 301–327 East Lawrence Avenue, Springfield, Ill. 62703. 1969. 228 pp. $9.50.

Suggests toys and games for developing accuracy of perception, retention and recall, conceptualization, and expression, classified according to age and sex interest and the intellectual skill required.

CHILD ABUSE LEGISLATION IN THE 1970's. Vincent De Francis. The American Humane Association, Children's Division, Post Office Box 1266, Denver, Colo., 80201. 1970. 134 pp. $1.50.

Presents a study of current child abuse reporting laws in each of the States and territories, and discusses problem areas and novel approaches.

A PRACTICAL GUIDE ON HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN. Alfred L. Miller and Roger Lehman. Charles C Thomas, 301–327 East Lawrence Avenue, Springfield, Ill. 62703. 1970. 69 pp. $5.50.

Describes the anatomy of the ear, physiology of hearing, diseases, treatment of hearing loss, basic procedures for conducting hearing tests, and use of hearing aids by children.

THE CHANGING DIMENSIONS OF DAY CARE: highlights from *Child Welfare*. Child Welfare League of America, Inc., 44 East 23rd Street, New York, N.Y. 10010. 1970. 62 pp $1.75.

Contains 11 articles on aspects of day care—philosophy, policy, community planning, board members, administration, staffing, the role of social work, day care as a resource, and its values for children.

CHILDREN IN RESURRECTION CITY. Walter E. Afield and Audrey B. Gibson. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, NW., Washington, D.C. 20016. 1970. 48 pp. $1.50.

Describes the day care center for 157 children in Resurrection City, Washington, D.C., in the summer of 1968, and the problems of working with children in an atmosphere of massive confusion and considerable family disorganization.

IN LOCO PARENTIS: a study of perceived role values in foster home care. Harry Gottesfeld. Epilogue by Elizabeth K. Radinsky. Jewish Child Care Association of New York, 345 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017. 1970. 40 pp. $1.25.

Reports on a study of the value systems of 75 children placed in foster family care, and those of their foster families, their parents, and their caseworkers, and the agency changes resulting from the study.

FINANCING HUMAN SERVICE PROGRAMS. Rocco D'Amico and Sheldon P. Todd. Institute for Interdisciplinary Studies, American Rehabilitation Foundation, 1800 Chicago Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn. 55403. 1970. 122 pp. $5.

Presents guidelines and case illustrations to help States improve their programs of human services by making optimum use of the Federal grants-in-aid available through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

HERE and THERE

Lead poisoning

All children between 1 and 6 years of age who are living in old, poorly maintained houses, or are otherwise exposed to the hazard of lead poisoning should be included in screening programs to determine the levels of lead in the blood, according to guidelines for attacking lead poisoning issued early last November by the U.S. Public Health Service. An "old" house is defined as one built before 1940 when the use of the lead-based paint for interiors was largely discontinued.

In brief the guidelines advise that—

- Children with a concentration of 80 micrograms or more of lead per 100 millimeters of whole blood should be considered medical emergencies and be hospitalized immediately for treatment with lead-removing drugs (chelation therapy).
- Children with blood lead levels of 50 to 79 micrograms of lead per 100 millimeters should be referred for diagnosis through laboratory tests, and followed closely with periodic determinations of blood lead levels if the tests are negative.
- Children with blood lead levels of 40 to 49 micrograms should be recalled for an evaluation to determine their current exposure to a lead poisoning hazard and for periodic followup if exposure continues.
- Children diagnosed as having lead poisoning should be treated immediately, removed from the source of lead exposure until corrective action has been taken, followed up carefully until 6 years of age or older to prevent further exposure, and assessed for any evidence of minimal brain damage or other sequelae of lead poisoning.
- Sources of lead must be removed from the environment of children who have absorbed hazardous amounts into their blood.
- Dwellings identified in the screening program as potential sources of lead hazards should be brought promptly to the attention of the local government agency responsible for enforcing regulations to bring about corrective action.
- Lead poisoning should be made a reportable disease.

Transracial adoptions

The pros and cons of placing black children with white families for adoption received a major portion of attention at the Second International Conference on Transracial Adoption, held in Boston, Mass., November 13–15, 1970. Among the 600 participants many were white parents who had adopted black children or children of mixed black and white origin.

In the keynote address, Ursula Gallagher, consultant on adoptions for the Children's Bureau, pointed out two conflicting trends: the growing acceptance of black children by white couples seeking to adopt and the active opposition among some blacks to the placement of black children with white families because of possible hazards to the children's ability to achieve inner security and a sense of identity. She pointed out that the practice of making black-white placements arose in recent years among adoption agencies because an excess of black children in need of adoption over black applicants for children made transracial adoption seem the only alternative to the children's having to spend their childhood without homes of their own. Granting that transracial adoptions may involve some special problems, she said that they demanded great strength on the part of the adoptive parents in understanding the needs of children and in ability to deal with their own racial attitudes as well as the attitudes of others.

In 15 group sessions following the keynote address the participants discussed subjects of concern to agencies and parents involved in transracial adoptions. Some of these subjects in themselves suggested possible alternatives to transracial adoptions: greater efforts to recruit adoptive homes in the black communities; the acceptance of single persons as adoptive parents; the subsidizing of adoptions; and the use of national and statewide adoption resource exchanges.

In other group sessions, attention was focused on ways of making transracial adoptions work. A number of white parents present spoke enthusiastically about the satisfactions they received from their own experience in adopting a black child. Some were confident that their attitudes could change hostile community attitudes.

Many of the participants expressed the feeling that the child in a transracial adoption could work out his identity problem satisfactorily if he were offered a great deal of love and security in the home. There was recognition, however, that this might become difficult in a time of increasing racial awareness. The point was made that little is known about the kind of defenses that might be built up in a black child brought up in a white social environment. One black participant said he would only approve adoption of black children by white parents if the parents were ready to face the reality of white racism and black militancy and protect the child from the inner conflicts that these would arouse.

Among other subjects discussed were the motivation of transracial adoptive parents, the development of special adoptive agencies, legislative action and adoptive policy, alternatives to the social work manpower problem, and services to children who wait.

Children's TV

Educational TV programs can reduce the learning gap between advantaged and disadvantaged children, according to an evaluation of the effects of "Sesame Street," the popular program for 3- to 5-year-olds, reported last November. The evaluation was made for the Children's Television Workshop, pro-

ducer of the program, by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N.J. It involved the selection of samples of children, divided into watchers and nonwatchers of "Sesame Street," from four population groups—low-income innercity, middle-class suburban, rural, and Spanish-speaking—and testing them at the beginning and end of the program's first year on items taught in the program.

The findings showed that—

- Disadvantaged viewers who were regular watchers of the program made higher test scores than middle-class children who did not watch the program.
- Three-year-old viewers gained the most from the program, making higher test scores than 4- and 5-year-old nonviewers.
- The 18 Spanish-speaking children who watched the program 5 days a week made the greatest group gains between the two testing periods.
- On the whole children who watched "Sesame Street" the most made the greatest gains.
- Skills that the program spent the most time on, such as learning letters and numbers, were learned the best.
- Children who watched the program at home showed slightly greater gains than children who watched the program at school.

To complement "Sesame Street," which first went on the air in the fall of 1969, the Children's Television Workshop is planning a program designed to teach reading skills to 7- to 10-year-old children. It will be presented to viewers in the fall of 1971. Both programs are supported by a combination of Federal and foundation grants.

For the deaf

To help profoundly deaf children develop communication skills, an instrument that translates sound into vibrations with distinctions perceptible by touch or pressure has been developed by a research team at the University of Illinois College of Medicine in Chicago, with support from the Children's Bureau from 1965 to 1968. The instrument, called General Auditory-Vibratory Experience Translator (GAVET), was designed by Shirley J. Heinze, Ph.D., research project leader, Raymond C. Blatt, and Paul Cekan, members of the departments of psychiatry and otolaryngology. It was tested with nine deaf preschool children from the Chicago area in 1967 and 1968.

The children learned to use the GAVET by placing their finger tips against the transducer to sense the vibrations. Later they wore it on a head band against the mastoid bone, so that their hands were free for other activities. The research workers found that the GAVET stimulated vocalization in deaf children and helped them establish more natural speech patterns than such children normally achieve. Alternating the GAVET with a conventional hearing aid, or using the two together, helped the research workers overcome children's resistance to auditory and language training.

Among the disadvantages of the GAVET was the large size of one test model, which the children found uncomfortable to wear. The 2- and 3-year-old children were willing to wear a small model of the GAVET in the speech clinic and at home, but were reluctant to wear it in a classroom with other children where it set them apart.

The research team designed a model about the size of a body-type hearing aid, but the contractor did not finish it in time for use in the project.

Baby foods

On the basis of a study of the safety and suitability of salt in baby foods, a subcommittee of the Food Protection Committee of the Food and Nutrition Board, National Research Council, last September recommended that manufacturers of baby foods restrict the addition of salt to one-fourth of 1 percent of the food product. The recommendation was based on the finding that most infants receive substantially more salt in their diets than they require physiologically.

The study was undertaken at the request of the Food and Drug Administration in response to growing concern about the possible harmful effects of various food additives. The subcommittee found no evidence that the addition of salt to baby foods at present levels is either harmful or beneficial to healthy infants nor any evidence that it contributes to development of hypertension or other disease states in adult life.

In its report the subcommittee noted that manufacturers add salt to baby foods to please the mother's taste. It therefore suggested that adding small amounts of salt to baby foods might serve to control the total salt intake of the infant by leading the mothers to serve such foods without further salting. It predicted that if manufacturers accept the recommended limitation on added salt, the salt intake of most infants would be reduced from 33 to 46 percent of current levels.

The subcommittee also reported on the use of modified food starches, which it found "suitable and safe for use in foods for infants." Such starches are added to strained and junior dinners, desserts, and fruits to provide desirable texture, consistency, and stability.

School lunches

On September 4, 1970, the U.S. Department of Agriculture put into effect new regulations regarding the national school lunch program to comply with the requirement of the National School Lunch and Child Nutrition Act of 1970 that all free or reduced price lunches provided with Federal financial or commodity assistance be served on a uniform anonymous basis.

Under the new regulations all schools that receive either money or commodities (or both) for their nonprofit school lunch service must serve nutritionally balanced free or reduced price meals to needy children who are determined eligible on the basis of family income, family size, and number of children in school and preschool.

As of January 1, 1971, the minimum income for eligibility must not be lower than the standard set in Federal guidelines—for example, $3,720 for a family of four in the 48 contiguous States—but it can be higher.

Local schools must publicize their eligibility standards by sending information to parents and mass media in the community. Schools also must provide simple application forms to all parents, and set up procedures for appeals from decisions on eligibility under a fair hearing procedure.

Children may not be required to work for their meals, use a separate lunchroom, use special tokens or tickets, or be otherwise identified or discriminated against.

Special Federal payments will be made to schools, according to their financial need, for lunches served free

or at a reduced price to needy children meeting the school's publicly announced criteria.

Under the new regulations each State must submit a plan of child nutrition operations annually, outlining the State's action program to extend the lunch program to every school in the State, furnish free or reduced price lunches to all children eligible for such lunches, and utilize funds of the school breakfast program and the special food service program for children to reach needy children.

Preschool children

A community teacher program now in its fourth year in Rochester, N.Y., brings certified teachers and mother-aides together in innercity homes to work with preschool children in developing cognitive, verbal, and perceptual skills. Operated by the city school system to meet the special needs of the disadvantaged center-city child for intellectual stimulation, the program currently serves 214 children between 3 and 5 years of age. It employs 11 teachers and 40 mother-aides.

As a result of two special classes last year, a new program has evolved that serves emotionally disturbed and mentally retarded children. This is in addition to the regular program and is funded by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and Model Cities.

Groups of six to eight children meet in their own neighborhoods in the homes of the mother-aides for half-day sessions twice a week. Teachers and mother-aides who work with Spanish-speaking children are bilingual.

Eight of the teachers work with two groups—one in the morning and a second in the afternoon. The other three teachers work with the special classes. Teachers use techniques developed by Bereiter and Englemann to improve the children's language and communication skills. At the beginning and end of each year the children's achievemint is measured on the Caldwell Pre-School Inventory. In all areas tested, the children have made significant gains each year.

Mother-aides play a key role in the in-home training program. Each aide is a paid paraprofessional, who assists the teacher and also provides emotional support for the children. Aides receive in-service training and planning in child development and educational techniques one-half day each week. Such training has prepared many of the mother-aides to expand their activities: they help the teachers recruit new children and mothers; some have served on a task force that evaluated the community teacher program and prepared guidelines for selection and training of new aides; and others have become liaison agents with community action groups.

When a child enrolls in the community teacher program, he is given a complete physical examination at Strong Memorial Hospital and is referred to a specialist for treatment of severe health problems, if necessary. The community teacher program also has a liaison with the neighborhood health center, which provides health services for children in the program.

The program was supported for its first 3 years with a Federal grant awarded under title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. It is now supported through State Community Education Center funds. According to Charles A. Planz, the program's former evaluator, the program has been successful because teachers come into a familiar home setting, because the children do not require transportation and because the mother-aides are directly involved in the children's learning experience.

Miscellaneous

A pilot project to test the feasibility of a computerized poison information system is being undertaken by the U.S. Public Health Service and the Children's Medical Center in Boston, Mass. Under the project, which began last fall, the Boston Center's poison control unit is linked by computer with the Food and Drug Administration's Poison Control Division in Washington, D.C. Technical assistance is being provided by the National Institutes of Health.

When a child is brought to the Boston unit for treatment after swallowing poison, a request for information about the suspected medicine or household product is placed on the computer. Data about the product's composition, effects on children, and antidotes are retrieved almost instantly from magnetic tape, allowing the physician in Boston to decide on appropriate treatment for the poison victim.

FDA maintains such information on file cards, and furnishes it on request to a network of 560 emergency poison facilities in hospitals and medical centers.

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The White House Conference on Youth will be held at Estes Park, Colo., between March 29 and April 23. During that period, each of the 10 task forces will meet separately to discuss its studies and present recommendations to groups of about 150 interested young people and adults.

Task forces are currently conducting inquiries on 10 major issues that concern American youth: poverty; drugs; environment; race and minority relations; education; the draft; the economy and employment; legal rights; foreign relations; and values, ethics and culture. Each task force has eight young people between the ages of 14 and 24 and eight adults as members.

• • •

The U.S. Office of Education is carrying on a nationwide campaign called *Closer Look*, with the goal of reaching children with handicaps at an early age. The campaign is designed to help parents and guardians of such children locate the educational programs their children need.

The campaign has two parts: spot announcements on television and radio, which ask viewers and listeners to take a closer look at their children; and a computerized information center to disseminate information about facilities and special education programs that can help children to overcome their handicaps. (Special Education Information Center, Post Office Box 1492, Washington, D.C. 20013.)

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correction

The editors apologize for an error that crept into the article by Kenneth M. Brinkhous, M.D. in the November–December issue of CHILDREN, unbeknownst to the author. ("Changing Prospects for Children With Hemophilia.") In speaking of laboratory tests to detect carriers of hemophilia, Dr. Brinkhous wrote: "One pitfall lies in the fact that not all carriers have a 50–50 distribution between cells that can and cannot produce the clotting protein." The word "blood" inexplicably and incorrectly appeared before the word cells in the printed copy.

IN THE JOURNALS

Tomorrow's environment

Attitudes formed in children today will determine the success or failure of efforts to solve the environmental crises of tomorrow, says Matthew J. Brennan in the October 1970 issue of *Childhood Education*. ("Making Tomorrow Now: Building a Qualitative Environment for All Children.") The author, UNESCO International Director of the Venezuelan Conservation Curriculum Project, was formerly science specialist with the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. He maintains that our schools are ill-prepared to assume the necessary task of developing in children an understanding of man's interdependence with all living things and his responsibility to maintain the environment.

"In most schools," he says, "the teacher is discouraged from using the surroundings as a laboratory. If he wants to take his class out-of-doors, he needs both parental permission and insurance against injury. Is it any wonder the average American knows little about his environment?"

The author suggests a new kind of environmental education that would create in children a sense of the beauty and wonder of nature, and an understanding of the importance of conservation in preserving all living things—including man himself. He urges that children be taught not only the basic scientific facts about the environment, but also the social and political factors involved in meeting today's environmental problems.

Children's feet

Twenty percent of nearly 9,000 preschool and schoolage children examined for foot ailments in a 3-year screening project in the District of Columbia were found to have conditions serious enough to require treatment or further study, according to an article in the September 1970 issue of *Public Health Reports*. ("Podiatry Screening Project for Children in the District of Columbia," by Jerome Shapiro, D.P.M., and Chu S. Rhee, M. A.) The project was carried out during 1967–69 by the District of Columbia Health Department in cooperation with the District of Columbia Board of Education and local podiatrists.

The authors report that postural problems—most frequently flat feet—and orthopedic disorders of the feet were found in 37 percent of the children screened, but not all such problems required treatment. Skin abnormalities of the feet were found in 16 percent of the children, gait deviations in 15 percent, and nail abnormalities in 4 percent. Nearly one-third of the children with orthopedic or postural disorders were found to be wearing ill-fitted shoes, as were one-fifth of the children without such disorders.

Of the 8,995 children screened, 997 were referred for treatment and 838 for additional study, according to the authors. Of those so referred, 409 had reported to the podiatry clinics of the health department by July 15, 1970.

The authors point out that such a screening project not only identifies serious foot ailments in many children but calls the attention of parents, teachers, and children to the importance of good foot care in the prevention of foot disorders in later life.

Educating disturbed children

In the October 1970 issue of the *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, Herbert N. Weissman, Ph. D., presents some considerations in providing instruction for disturbed children within a regular school system. ("Implications for the Education of Children with Emotional and Social Disturbances.")

The author reviews some broad diagnostic "grouping principles" as bases for planning for the child: determining whether the child's problem is caused by an organic disturbance or a functional disturbance with roots in experience; whether it has become internalized—and so not modifiable by simple changes in environment—or whether it is reactive to present environmental pressure; whether it results in suffering for the child or suffering for others; and whether it is partial or total. However, he warns against applying ideas of adult personality to a child who is in the process of developing and points out that in children "the boundaries between the abnormal and the normal are much more transitory and flexible than with adults."

The best learning setting for a disturbed child is in a regular classroom with outside therapy to maintain him there, the author asserts. Acknowledging that some children require placement in "contained classrooms for children with emotional disturbances" because of continuing disruptive behavior, he provides seven criteria for determining whether such a referral is necessary. These criteria range from the degree of discrepancy between the child's age and the appropriateness of his behavior to a consideration of the child's total personality and degree of social adjustment.

Three groups of children found in contained classrooms—the undersocialized, the neurotic, and the psychotic—require different educational approaches, according to the author, but in each case the pupil-teacher relationship is all-important and the aim must be to reject the inappropriate behavior but not the child.

Help for hemophiliacs

Home transfusions for hemophiliac patients are both practical and safe, report two physicians from Chicago's Michael Reese Hospital in an article in the *New England Journal of Medicine* for November 5, 1970. ("Home Transfusion for Hemophilia," by S. Frederick Rabiner, M.D., and Margaret C. Telfer, M.D.) The authors describe a program designed by their hospital's hemophilia clinic to stop bleeding episodes in patients more quickly than is possible when patients must be transported to the clinic—in some instances as far as 150 miles from their homes.

Under the program a member of the patient's family—usually the mother—is trained at the clinic to ready a concentrated antihemophilic blood factor (AHF) preparation for transfusions and to inject it intravenously in the patient through the use of disposable equipment. After training, the home transfusionist is given a supply of the AHF for storage in the family's refrigerator or deep freeze (depending on the type of AHF in use). Whenever the patient suspects a hemorrhage, the transfusionist telephones the hospital's resident hemotologist for instructions on whether to give a home transfusion and, if so, how much or whether to bring the patient to the hospital. In the former case, the transfusionist reports back the next day on the patient's progress.

Of 16 families, with a total of 18 patients, who volunteered to participate in the program during its first 18 months, 12 families, with 14 patients, were still participating at the time the article was written. According to the authors, the patients and their families were "universally enthusiastic about the plan" and believed that the patients' hemorrhages were treated faster, that their pain stopped sooner, and that their lives were less disturbed by disease than in the past.

While acknowledging it is too soon to expect objective changes, the authors express the hope that in shortening the time between onset of bleeding and AHF infusion and encouraging child patients to report suspected bleeding earlier, the program may ultimately reduce trauma and delay onset of chronic joint disease.

An avenue to self-respect

"The mass institution as it exists today definitely must be *out*," says Gisela Konopka, director of the Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota, in the October issue of the quarterly, *Social Work*. ("Our Outcast Youth.") In their stead she recommends two types of community-centered living arrangements: (1) small group homes for five or six young people each, located in accepting neighborhoods of cities and towns where the young people would go to school and take part in community life; and (2) small institutions with built-in educational and treatment services for not more than 25 young people who are not yet ready for "an everyday community situation," located near enough to centers of population to allow for some community involvement.

The author maintains that in spite of reform movements in this and the last century, the sporadic appearance of innovative treatment techniques, increased knowledge about behavior, and "a great deal of talk about institutions as treatment facilities," the ancient concept of dealing with delinquents by casting them out of society still prevails in this country. Putting young people in large isolated institutions that emphasize conformity and obedience strips away their self-respect, she maintains.

Rehabilitation, the author insists, can only be built on self-respect and dignity. She offers five "musts" for any program that would bring this about. It must be community centered and so provide young people with a feeling of acceptance. It must involve a young person in his own fate through complete openness in dealing with him rather than with manipulative treatment. It must provide experiences of real accomplishment to enhance self-confidence. It must provide hope for the future through experiences of hope fulfilled. It must provide the young people with significant and positive relationships through their daily contacts with people their own age and with counselors who understand the need for providing outlets for the strong drives of adolescence.

READERS' EXCHANGE

BRINKHOUS: Two "if's"

Dr. Brinkhous has written a lucid and encouraging account of recent advances in the technology of concentrate preparation for the treatment and prophylactic care of hemophiliacs. ("Changing Prospects for Children With Hemophilia," Kenneth M. Brinkhous, CHILDREN, November-December 1970).

The scientific and engineering advances of recent years, which have brought these potent new means to the fore, now make possible a comparatively normal life for every young hemophiliac in the country—IF—and Dr. Brinkhous does not duck these contingencies—our system of health care delivery can seek out sufferers and reliably provide services to those in need of them.

As in the case of other life-saving technologies — hemodialysis, organ transplants, and so forth—science has given us the tools, but we are as yet far from translating them into policy commitments, much less into effective organizational and financing structures for their equitable use. What mechanisms exist for distributing presently scarce medical resources effectively and equitably? Dr. Brinkhous addresses himself to two in the case of hemophiliacs: improvements in private health insurance coverage; and governmental programs such as the Federal-State Crippled Children's Services (when will that horribly anachronistic name be changed?) and Medicaid.

I believe it unrealistic to expect commercial insurance carriers to write policies providing prophylactic and therapeutic transfusion care for *known* hemophiliacs, even if the costs of cryoprecipitate preparations could be substantially reduced.

Present governmental programs of care for eligible categories of patients, as Dr. Brinkhous implies, suffer from chronic financial shortages, political pressures, and the enormous variations in adequacy and coverage from State to State.

To my mind, only a truly national

and comprehensive program of health insurance—as proposed in bills before the present Congress—could provide the financial and organizational foundation to support a hemophilia transfusion and treatment service that would incorporate the benefits of concentrate technology, and provide prophylactic and remedial care to all hemophiliacs in need of it. Our northern neighbor, Canada, has already taken significant steps in the direction of making the concentrates generally available to hemophiliacs.

The costs of preventive care, while high, are less—in both human and material terms—than the costs of rehabilitation—of righting damage once it has occurred. As stated in my recent book:

"Hemophilia is not a disorder of such medical magnitude that, like mental disorder or tuberculosis, it would require a very expensive national or State-supported program of care, although the treatment costs are nearly always beyond the income of families with hemophilic members. The absence of a well-planned, preventively oriented care program has serious consequences. Hemophilia is a disorder where the failure to treat early and decisively increases the frequency of severe impairments. For example, many State vocational rehabilitation services could begin before impairment and work on a preventive basis. This would mean getting to the children and their parents with a planned program of physical care and psychosocial counseling, through the cooperation of State Crippled Children's, vocational rehabilitation, and other public and private agencies." ("Hemophilia: A Study in Hope and Reality", published by Charles C. Thomas, 1970.)

Such a preventive approach might also reduce the overall costs of care by making it less necessary to provide preventable physical rehabilitation.

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PEARSON: No panacea

I was fascinated by the article, "A Differential Use of Group Homes for Delinquent Boys," by John W. Pearson (CHILDREN, July-August 1970). The article started out in a stimulating way, talking about classification, matching of the delinquents' and parole agents' personality traits, planning of an individualized treatment program and use of relationship as a major agent of change. However, I was stunned to learn late in the article that all of the group homes had terminated for various reasons.

Since group homes are looked at as something of a panacea for children's placements, I think that this article is timely and calls for a lot of soul searching by agencies planning or carrying on such home programs. It appears to me that we must realize that we are expecting too much of some group home houseparents. We have prided ourselves in the institutional field on giving lighter work schedules and ancillary personnel to help the child care staff.

We have developed creative activity programs, work opportunities for children, much community contact, and even individualized rooms. I wonder what group homes have to offer some young people in such therapeutic programs. One can find in the literature much pride that group homes are inexpensive. Perhaps that it is because we are taking advantage of group home houseparents, and have returned them to an era of little pay and excessive hours of work. If group home programs are to succeed, group home houseparents have to have an agency demonstrate respect through pay, status, support, and understanding. They cannot be expected to be miracle workers for young people who are not ready to really relate to the community in a positive manner.

I would welcome comments and letters from other readers who have some questions about the group home movement in the United States.

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EDINGER: A missing ingredient

In reference to Hanni Edinger's article "Reuniting Children and Parents Through Casework and Group Work" (CHILDREN, September–October 1970), I would like to indict this effort in social work research with what I consider to be gross malpractice. In the "assessment" portion of her article she cites social workers' testimony as support for the alleged effectiveness of the project.

It is not timely to suggest in this era of consumers' rights, and in this case the consumers are the clients, that we should pay more attention to the clients' perceptions of the effectiveness of our professional efforts? How much longer are we going to delude ourselves into thinking that in the absence of client criticism we are doing a fine job?

My criticism of course goes beyond this one article, but there are few words from the clients in Hanni Edinger's "assessment," and although these words acknowledge client approval of the project's effectiveness, they are obviously added as an afterthought.

I am reminded in this article of more of the same old, "I'll scratch-your-back-if-you'll-scratch-mine" kind of social work research that is certainly of little value in scientific knowledge-building, upon which social workers may hope to practice.

Owen D. Sperry

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Author's reply

If Mr. Sperry took another look at my article, he would note that (1) its purpose was to share our experiences in a parent group at St. Christopher's School because few reports of such projects have been published; and (2) we made no claim to have conducted a research project. Rather, as stated in the conclusion, we felt that "controlled experiments are needed. . . ."

I couldn't agree with him more that clients' critical involvement in the social work process is essential. In this case at least, the proof of the pudding was in the eating: parents did return for more group meetings.

Hanni B. Edinger

Dobbs Ferry, N.Y.

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photo credits

Frontispiece and page 4, White House Conference on Children.
Page 11, Bernie Boston for Head Start.
Page 26, Del Hood, *The Daily Californian.*

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YOUTH REPORTERS DISCUSS "PROBLEM" DRUGS. Elizabeth Herzog, Cecelia E. Sudia, Jane Harwood. HEW, OCD, Children's Bureau. Youth Reports No. 2. 1970. 46 pp. Single copies free from OCD.

Presents the opinions and attitudes expressed in a nationwide mail survey of high school students in college preparatory curricula concerning the use and users of drugs.

TREATING READING DIFFICULTIES: the role of the principal, teacher, specialist, administrator. HEW, Office of Education, National Center for Educational Communication. OE publication No. 30026. 1970. 132 pp. $1.50.

Describes the role of the school principal, the teacher, the reading specialist, and the school administrator in working together as a team to correct reading deficiencies in children in kindergarten through twelfth grade.

HEW refers to Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; OCD, to Office of Child Development; SRS, to Social and Rehabilitation Service; PHS, to Public Health Service.

STATISTICS IN MENTAL HEALTH PROGRAMS. Edited by Cecil R. Wurster. HEW, National Institute of Mental Health, National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information. 1970. 65 pp. 65 cents.

Contains 12 papers presented at the 1967, 1968, and 1969 meetings of the National Conference on Mental Health Statistics. Among other aspects of statistical use they discuss the application of data systems to program evaluation methods and program planning methods for measuring service needs and patient change.

SELECTED READING SUGGESTIONS—for parents of mentally retarded children. Compiled and annotated by Kathryn A. Gorham. HEW, OCD, Children's Bureau. CB Publication 19. 1970. 58 pp. 60 cents.

Contains annotated listings on mental retardation; associated conditions; managing, educating, and protecting the future of the retarded child; and related subjects.

THE SIX-HOUR RETARDED CHILD: a report on a conference on problems of education of children in the inner city, August 10–12, 1969, Warrenton, Va. President's Committee on Mental Retardation and Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Office of Education, HEW. 1970. 28 pp. 35 cents.

Briefly summarizes the conference and presents its seven recommendations for improving the educational opportunities of children labeled retarded although they are "competently coping with their environment everywhere but for the six hours per day in the classroom."

MINIMAL BRAIN DYSFUNCTION IN CHILDREN: educational, medical, and health-related services. HEW, PHS. PHS Publication No. 2015. 1970. 81 pp. $1.

Presents the report of a task force on the National Project on Learning Disabilities in Children, including evaluation and assessment, classroom management, professional preparation, and educational legislation.

CENTRAL PROCESSING DYSFUNCTIONS IN CHILDREN: a review of research. James C. Chalfant and Margaret A. Scheffelin. Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke. NINDS Monograph No. 9, 1970. 148 pp. $1.25.

Summarizes the present status of knowledge in and the future research needs for identifying, assessing, and treating children with central processing disorders arising from minimal brain dysfunctions.

CHILDREN is published by the Office of Child Development six times a year. Use of funds for printing this publication was approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, November 24, 1967.

CHILDREN is regularly indexed by the Education Index and the Nursing Literature Index.

NOTE TO AUTHORS: Manuscripts are considered for publication only if they have not been previously published. Speeches from conferences should carry appropriate identification. Opinions of contributors not connected with the Office of Child Development are their own and do not necessarily reflect the views of CHILDREN or of the Office of Child Development.

Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to:

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Washington, D.C. 20013

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